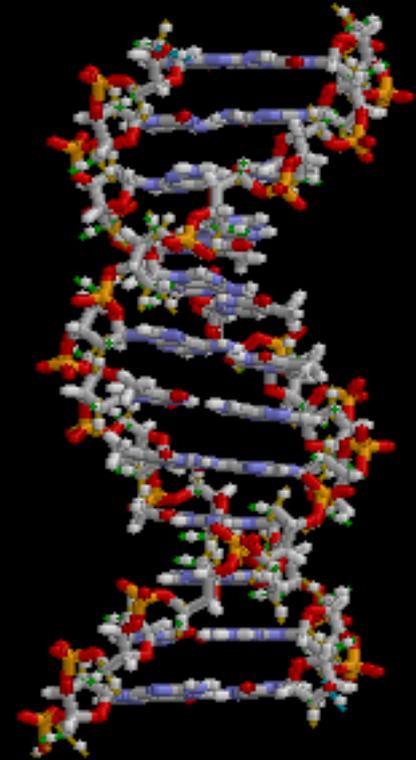


# DNA

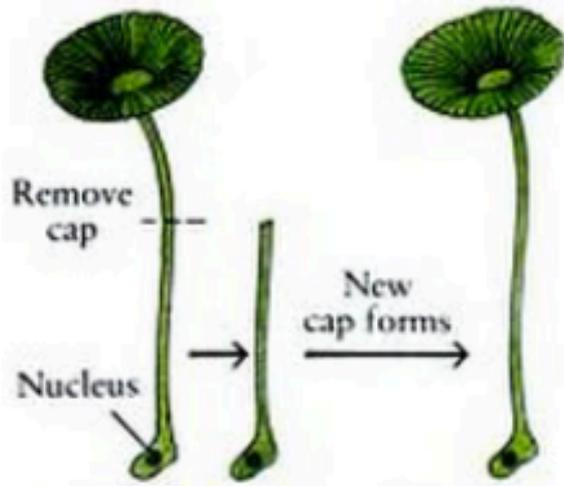
Its discovery, structure, and replication

# Essential Questions from DNA Discovery Activity

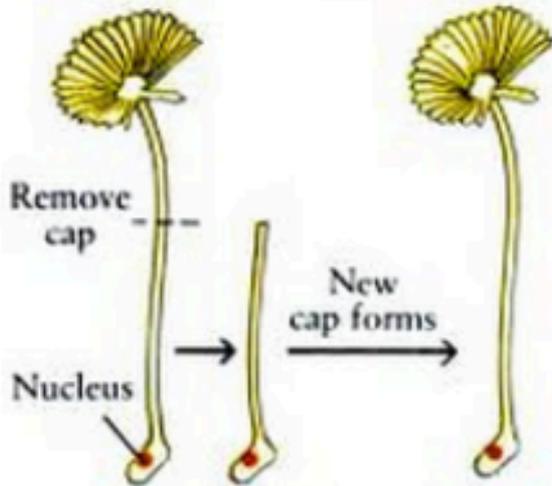
1. How do we know that DNA is the genetic material?
2. What's the evidence for the current model of DNA



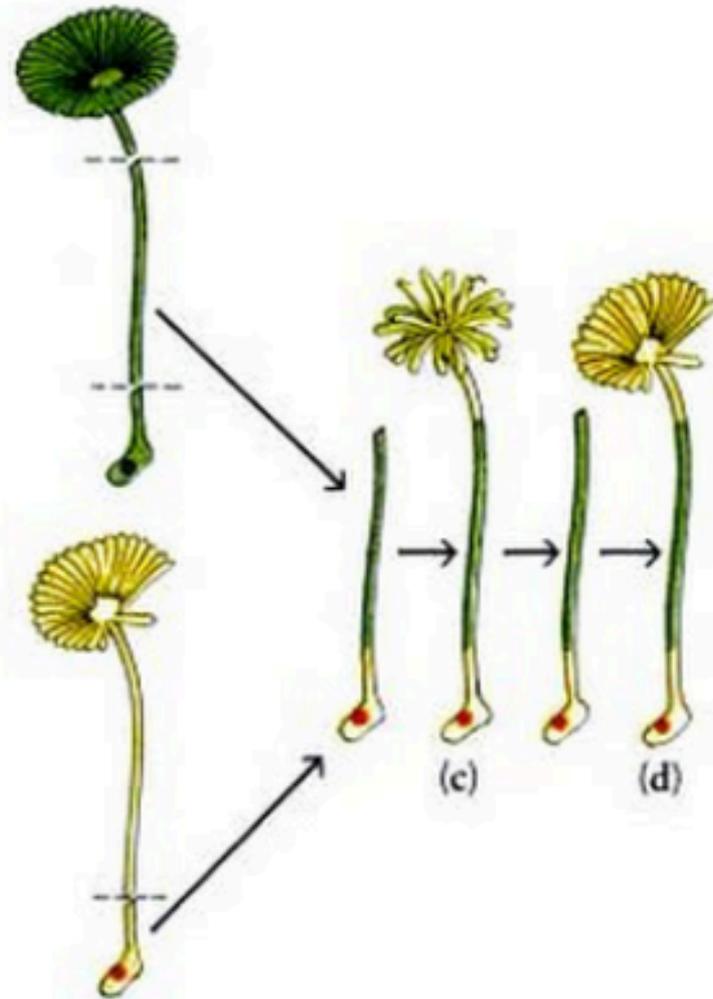
# Significance of *Acetabularia*



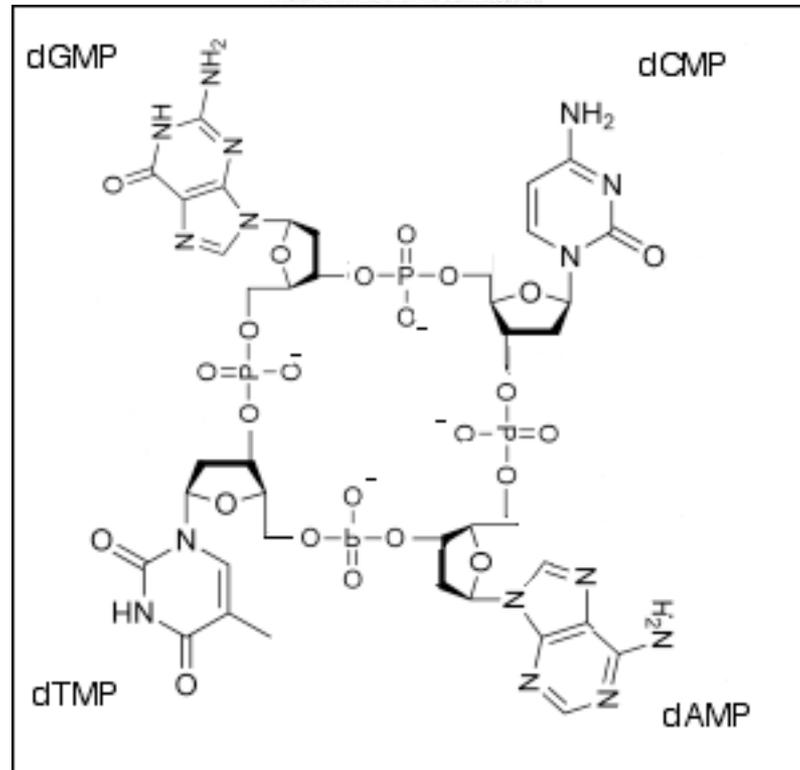
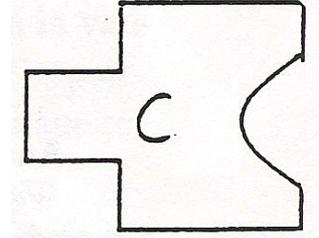
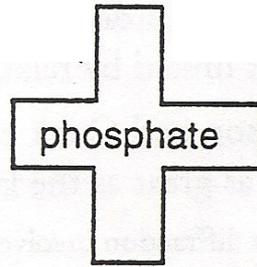
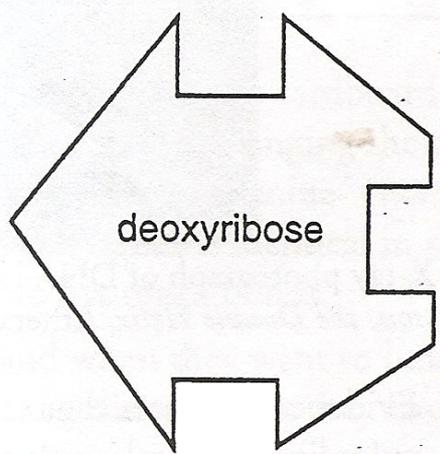
(a) *Acetabularia mediterranea*



(b) *Acetabularia crenulata*

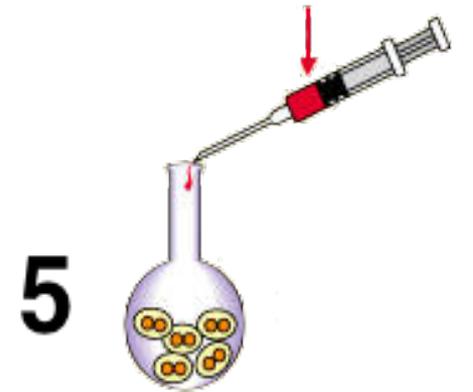
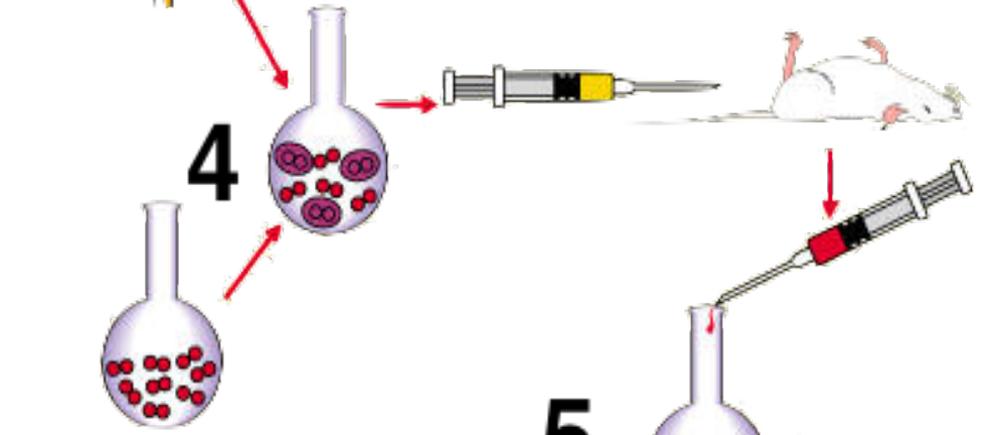
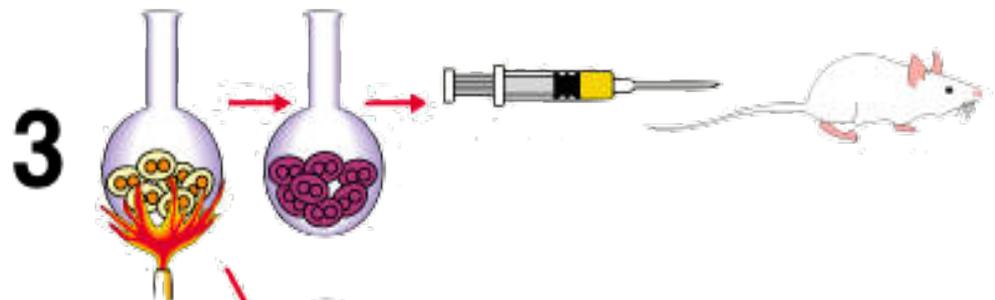
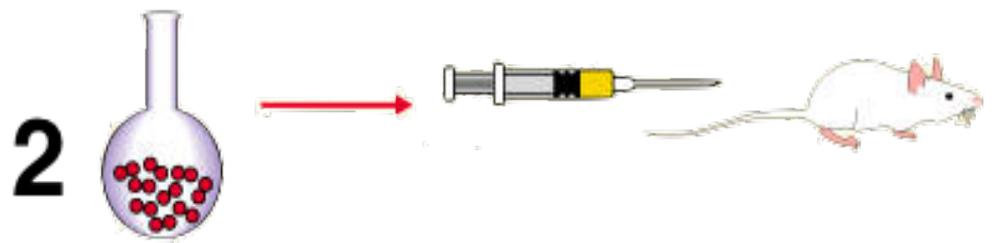
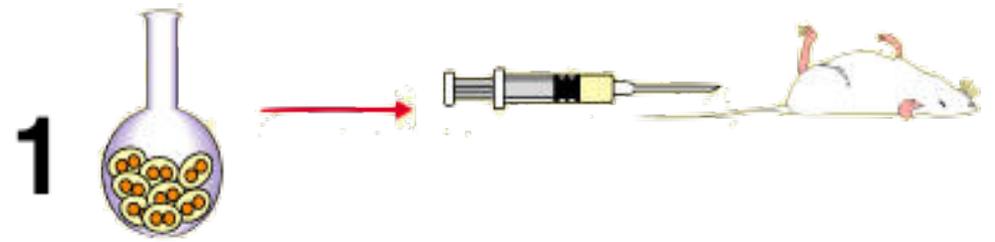


# *Nuclein*: Known chemistry... wrong ideas

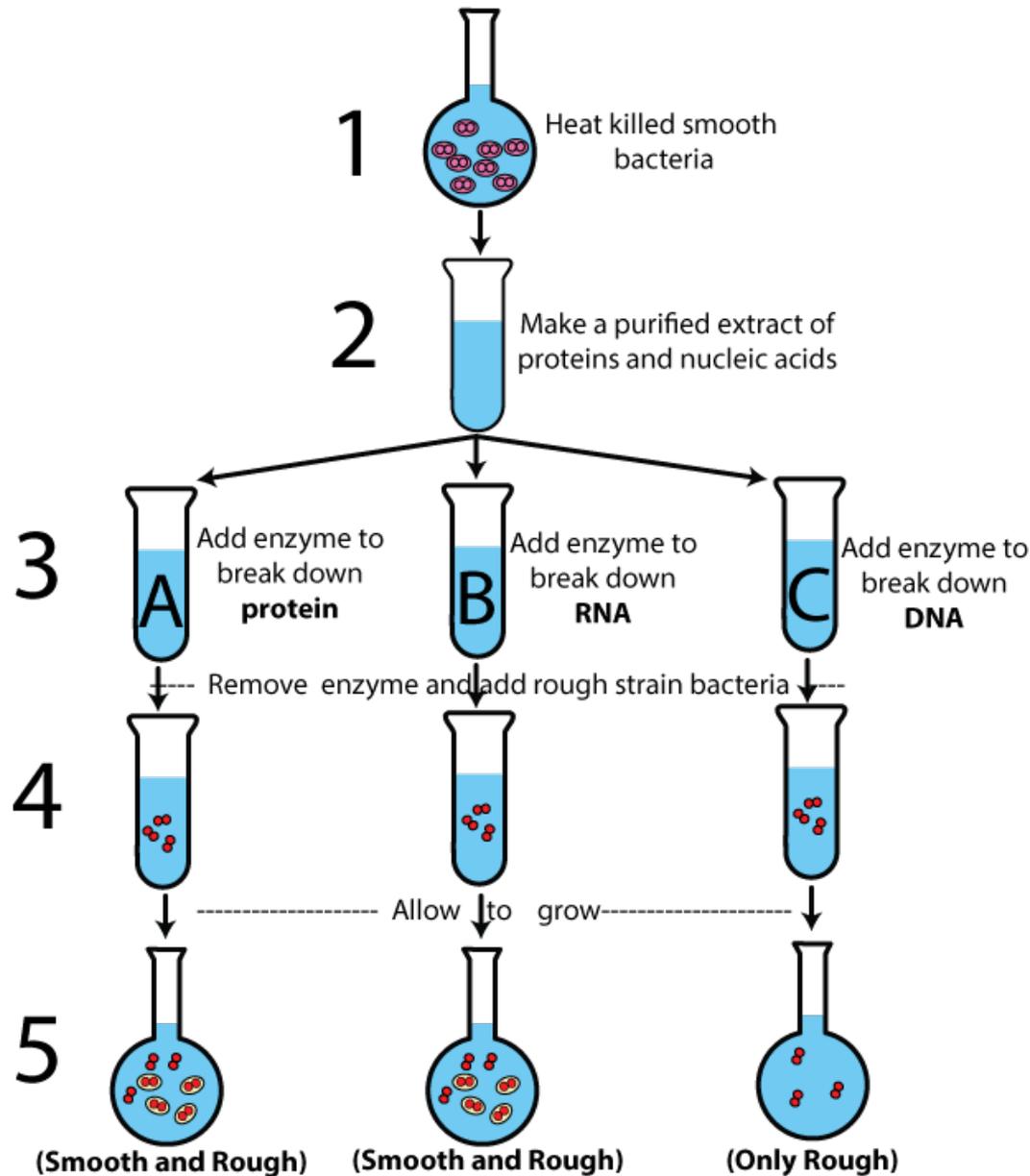


Tetra-  
nucleotide  
hypothesis

# The *Transforming* *Factor* Experiment



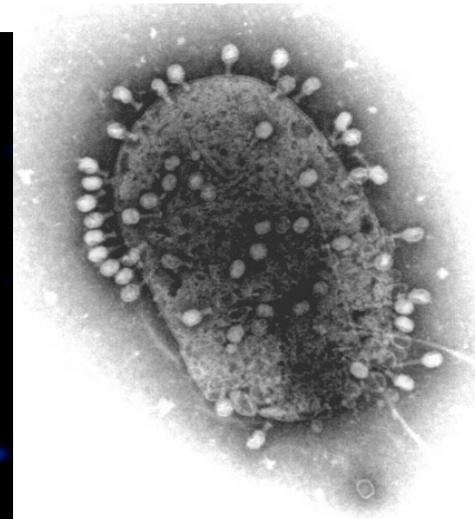
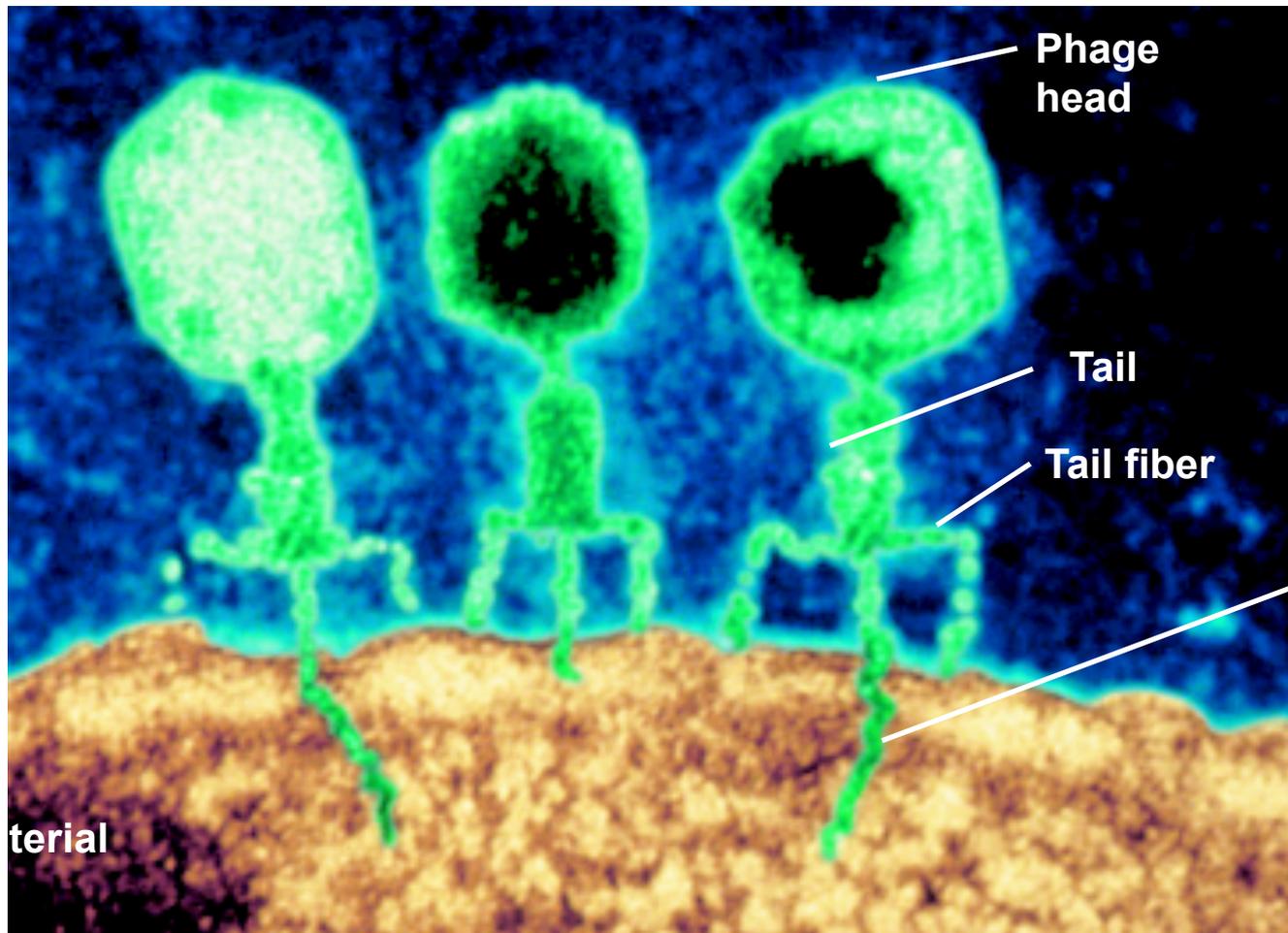
# Identifying the Transforming Factor



1. If you break down the DNA, you don't get \_\_\_\_\_ to occur.

2. Therefore, \_\_\_\_\_ must be the Transforming Factor

# Hershey Chase Experiment: Phage attacking a bacterial cell



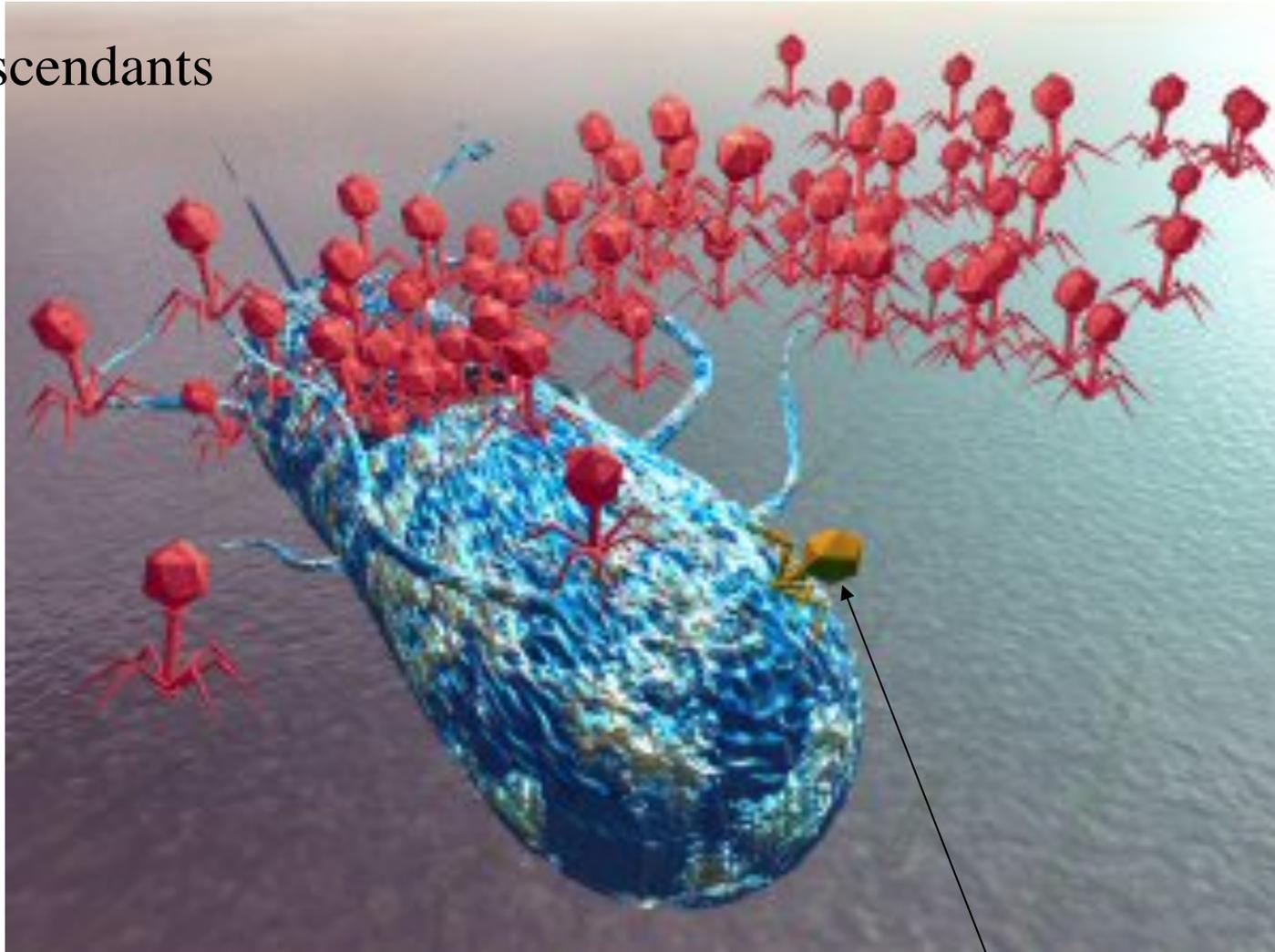
Copyright: CIMC

**What are  
these viruses  
injecting  
into the cell?**

100 nm

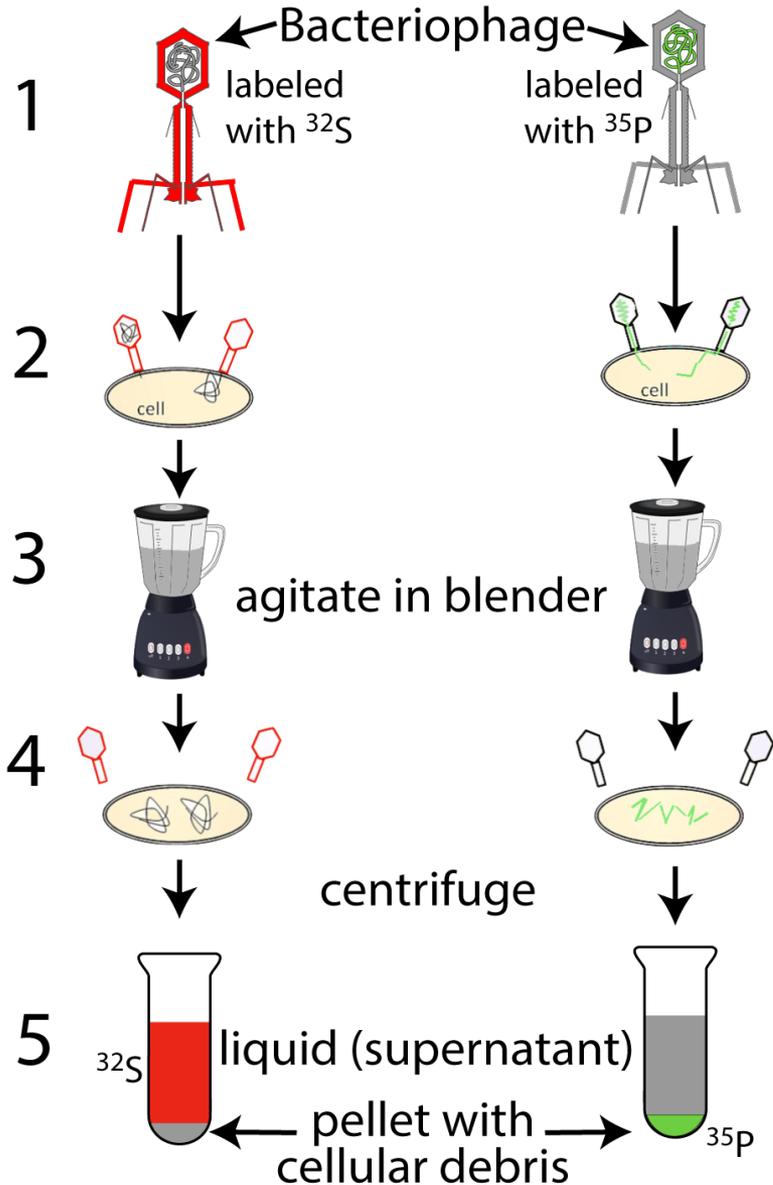
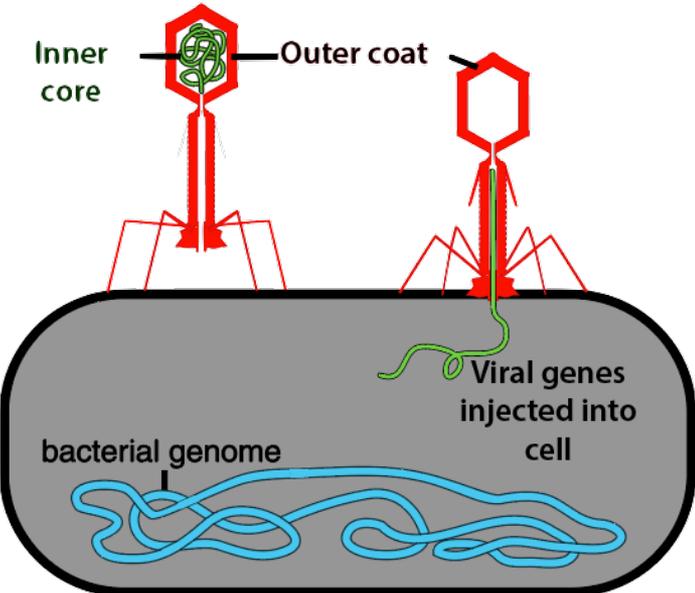
# The result of phage attack

Descendants



Original phage

# Hershey Chase Experiment



# So, the race was on to figure out the structure of DNA



Linus Pauling: discover  
of the structure of  
hemoglobin and cause  
of sickle cell anemia

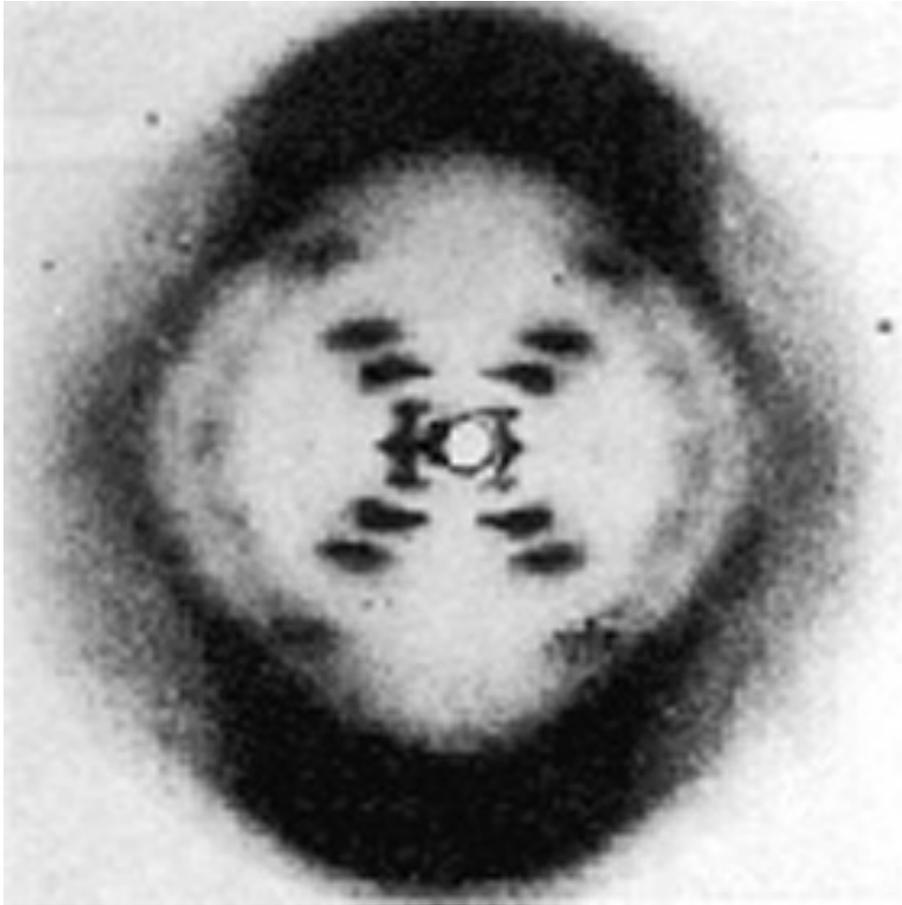


Rosalind Franklin:  
molecular biologist  
doing X-Ray studies  
of DNA with  
Maurice Wilkins



James Watson (American  
biologist) and Francis  
Crick (British Physicist)

Franklin's X-Ray Diffraction Image of DNA says that DNA has a helical structure, and that it's about 2nm wide



# *Also, Chargaff's Rule: Relative Proportions (%) of Bases in DNA*

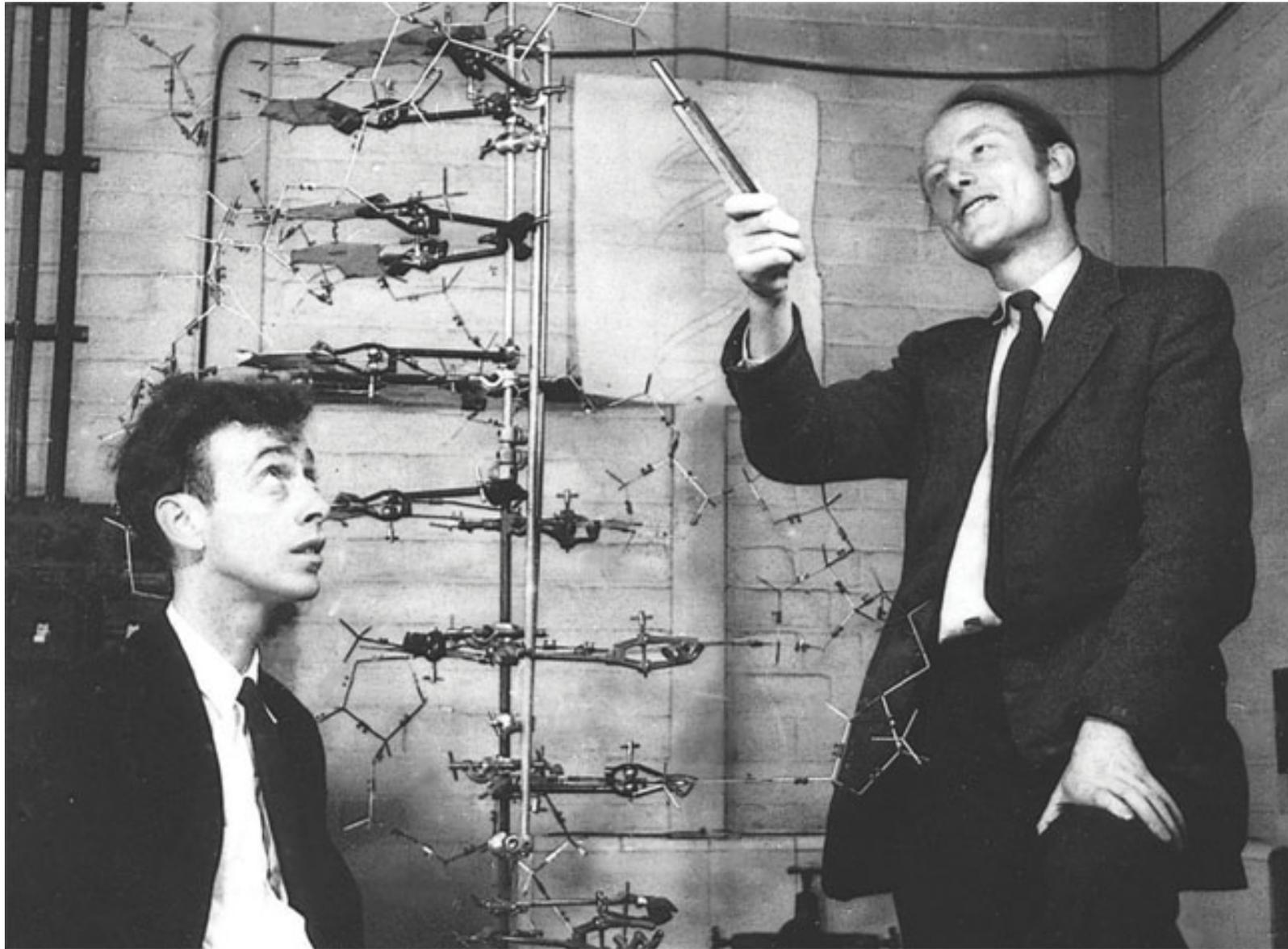
Organism	%A	%G	%C	%T
Maize	26.8	22.8	23.2	27.2
Octopus	33.2	17.6	17.6	31.6
Chicken	28.0	22.0	21.6	28.4
Rat	28.6	21.4	20.5	28.4
Human	29.3	20.7	20.0	30.0
Grasshopper	29.3	20.5	20.7	29.3
Sea Urchin	32.8	17.7	17.3	32.1
Wheat	27.3	22.7	22.8	27.1
Yeast	31.3	18.7	17.1	32.9
E. coli	24.7	26.0	25.7	23.6

*Keeping in mind that scientific measurements always have some margin of error, what relationship do you notice among the bases?*

# The last clues

- An adenine-thymine pair has the same width as a cytosine-guanine pair.
- Each of these pairs is about 2nm wide (the same width as a DNA molecule...)

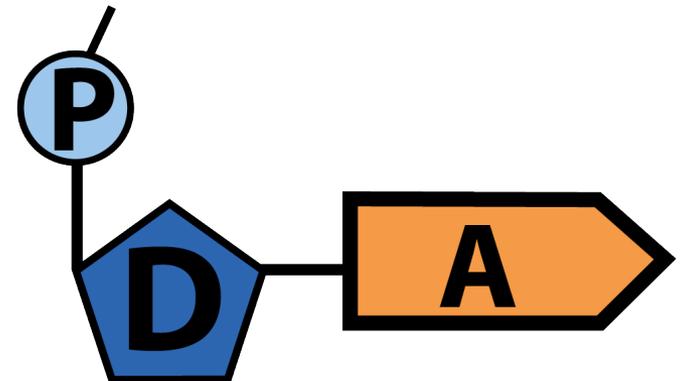
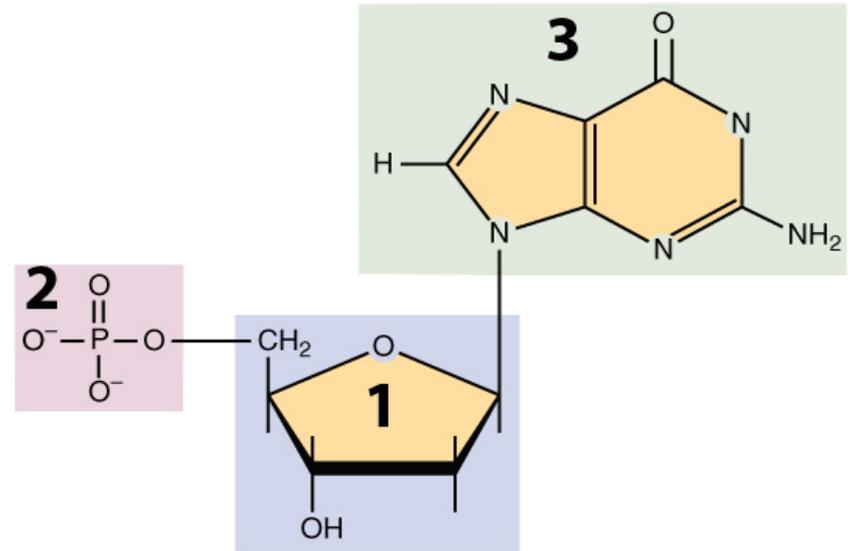
# Watson and Crick Model of DNA



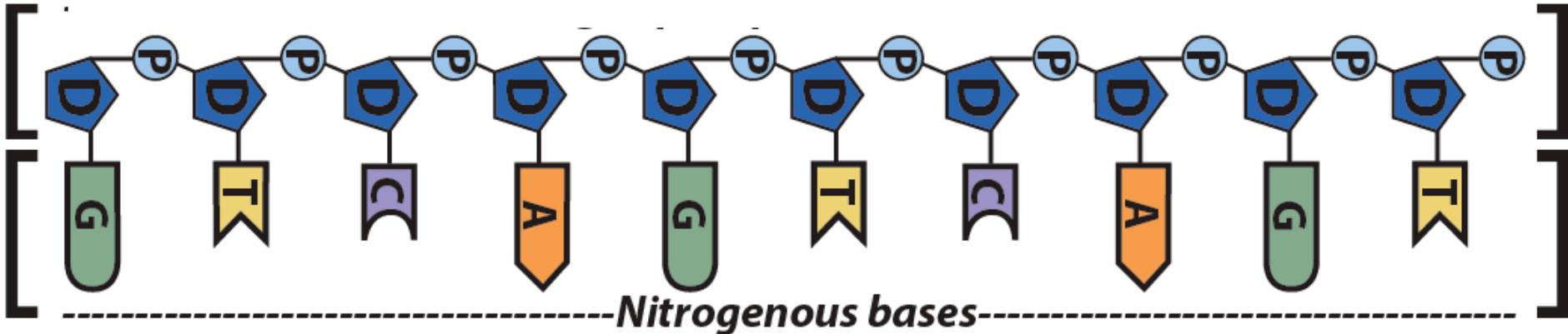
# What you need to know about DNA

Monomer is a nucleotide

- Deoxyribose (sugar)
- Phosphate
- One of four nitrogenous bases
  - Adenine
  - Thymine
  - Cytosine
  - Guanine

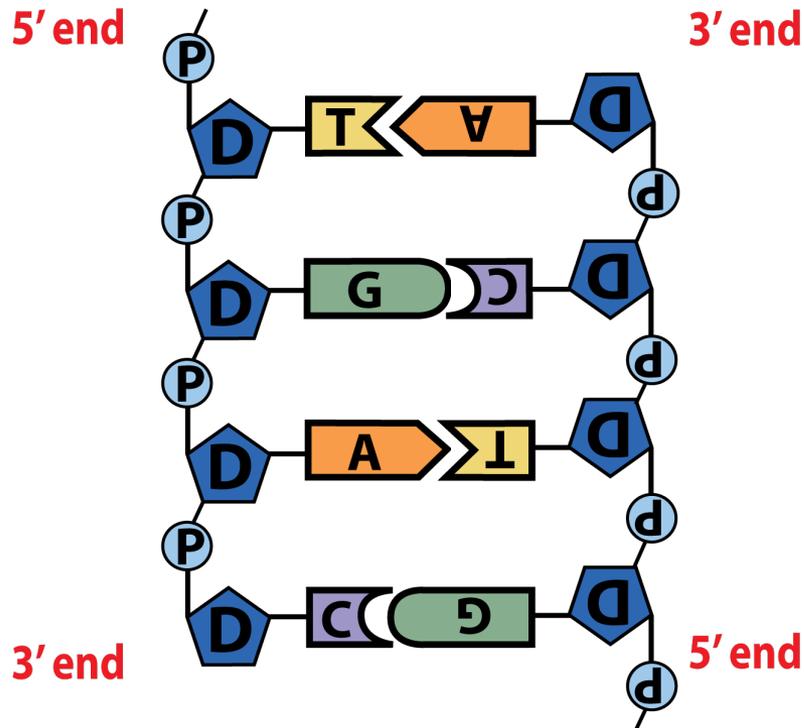


# A single strand



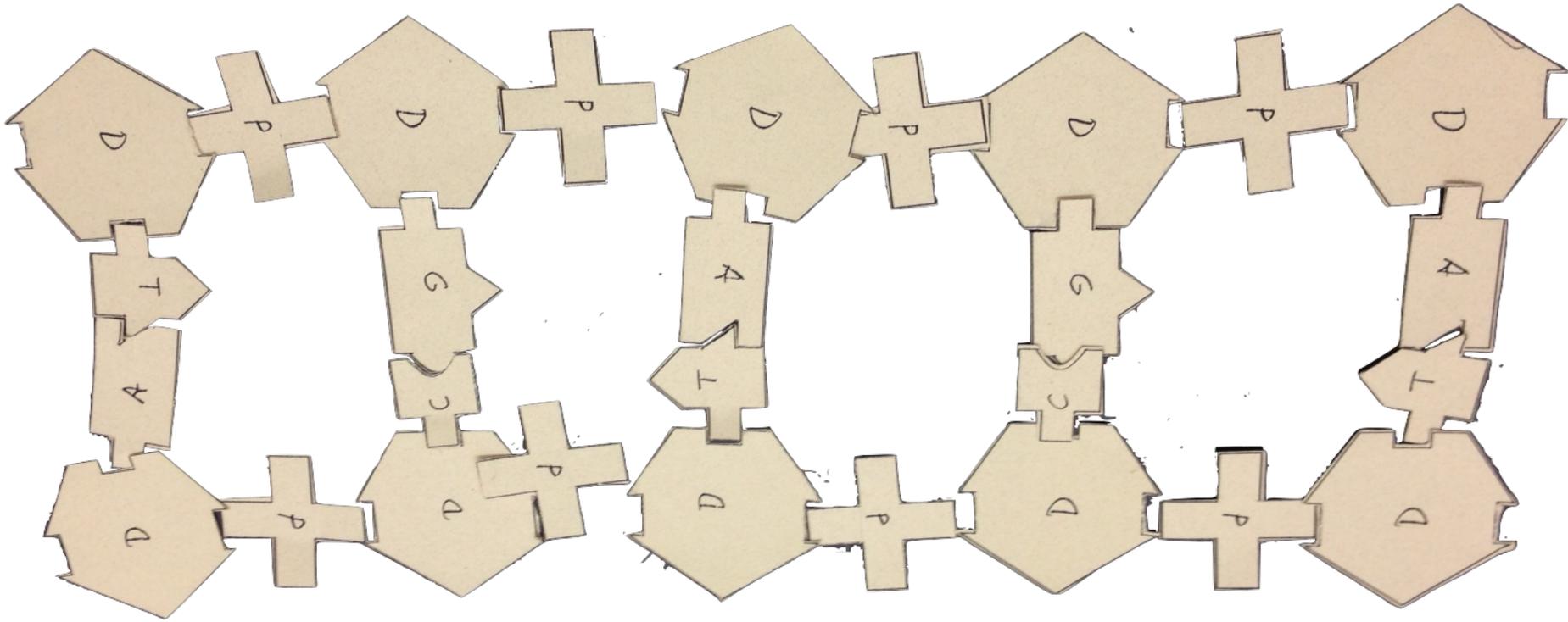
- A single strand consists of nucleotides chained together by covalent bonds.
- This creates a sugar - phosphate backbone
- Genetic information is stored in the sequence of bases.

Overall structure is double stranded



- If DNA were a ladder, the nitrogenous bases would form the rungs. The sides would consist of sugars and phosphates.
- The shape of A complements the shape of T. Same for G and C.
- For the strands to bind, they have to be anti - parallel.
- Hydrogen bonds hold the bases together.
- The structure allows for accurate replication and transfer of information.

Not parallel, but *anti-parallel*

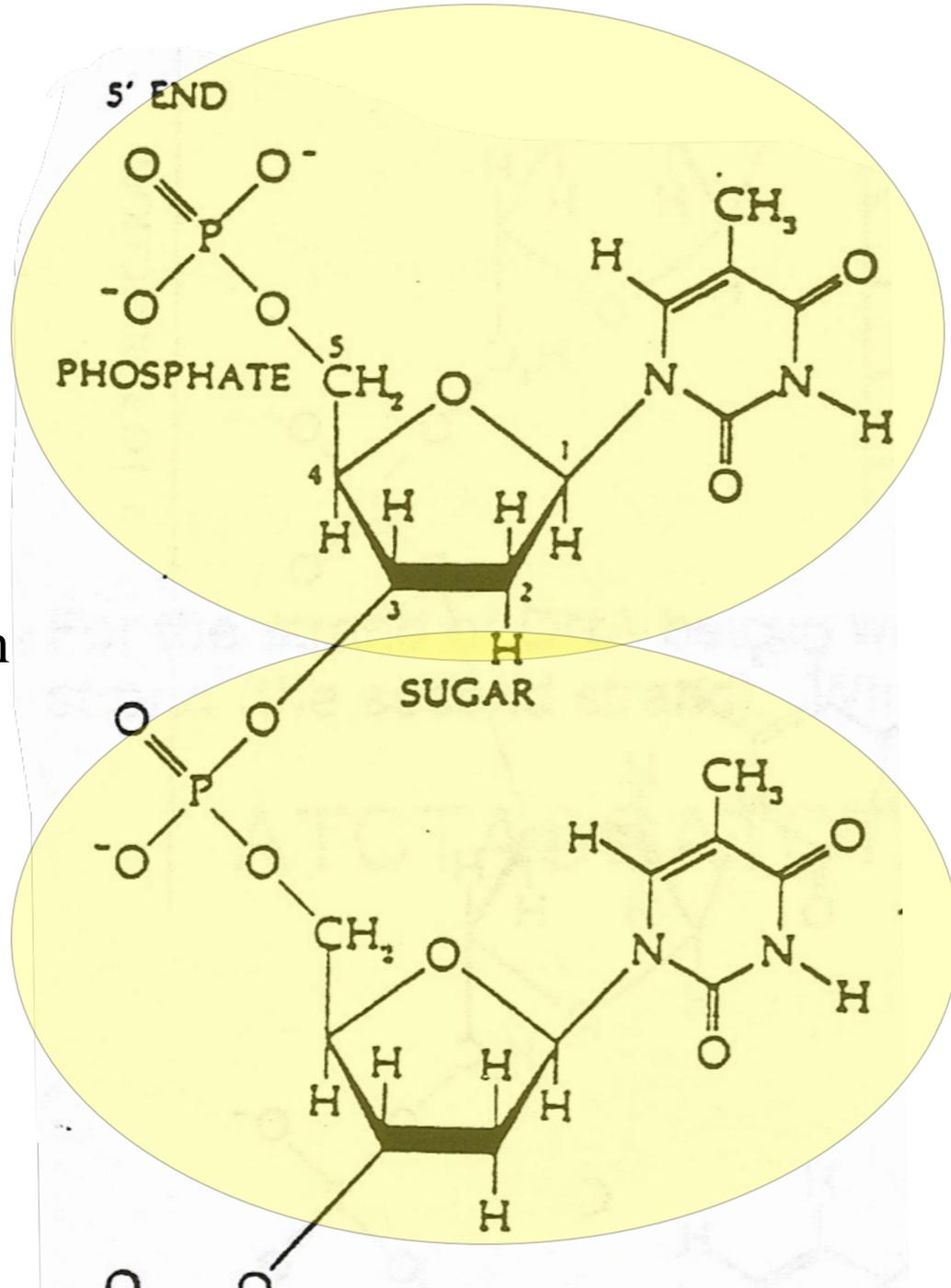


# DNA

has

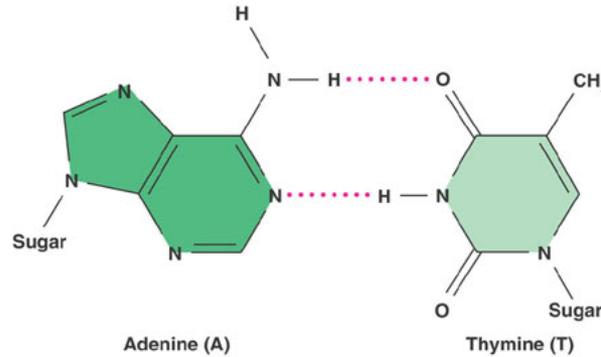
## *directionality*

- Each nucleotide's phosphate is attached to the 5' carbon in deoxyribose
- When DNA is being synthesized, enzymes can only add new nucleotides at the 3' end.



# Base Pairing Rules

A

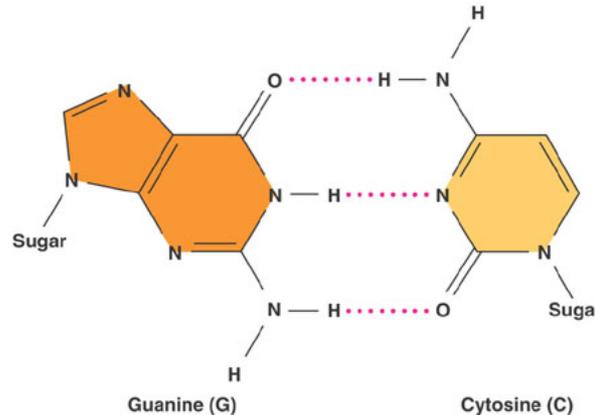


T

Two-ring  
bases are  
*purines*

One ring bases  
are *pyrimidines*

G

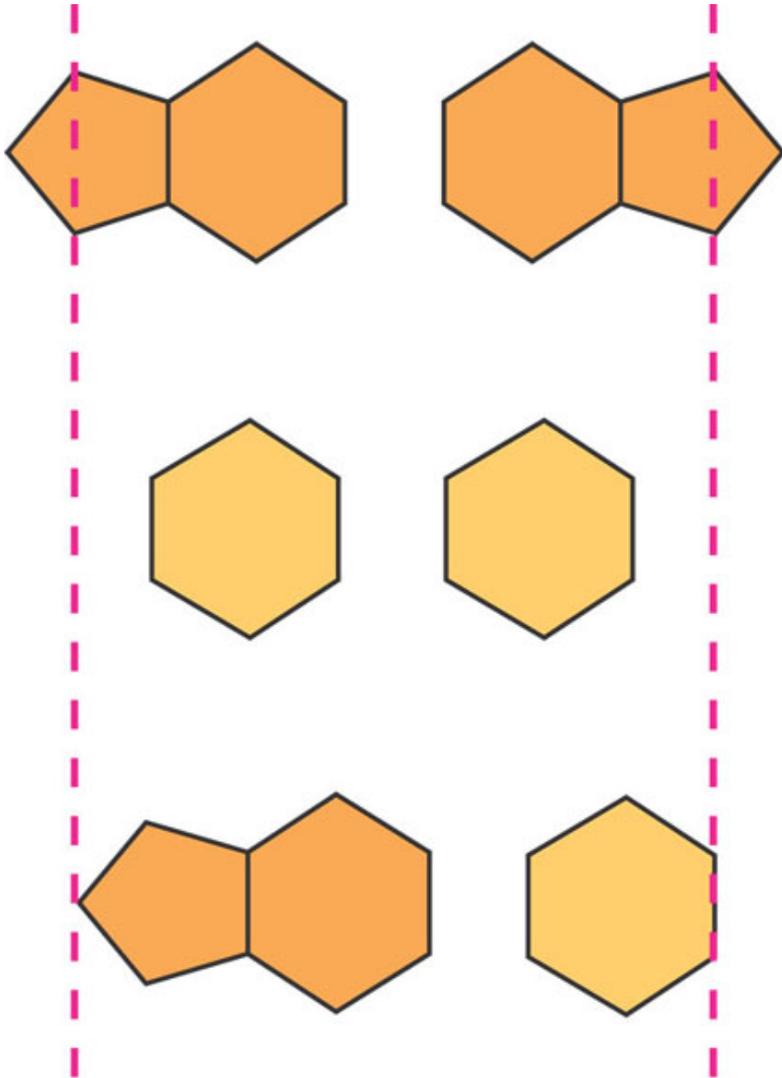


C

- Note that the hydrogen bonds are between H and either *nitrogen* or *oxygen* on the opposing base.
- A purine always bonds with a *pyrimidine*

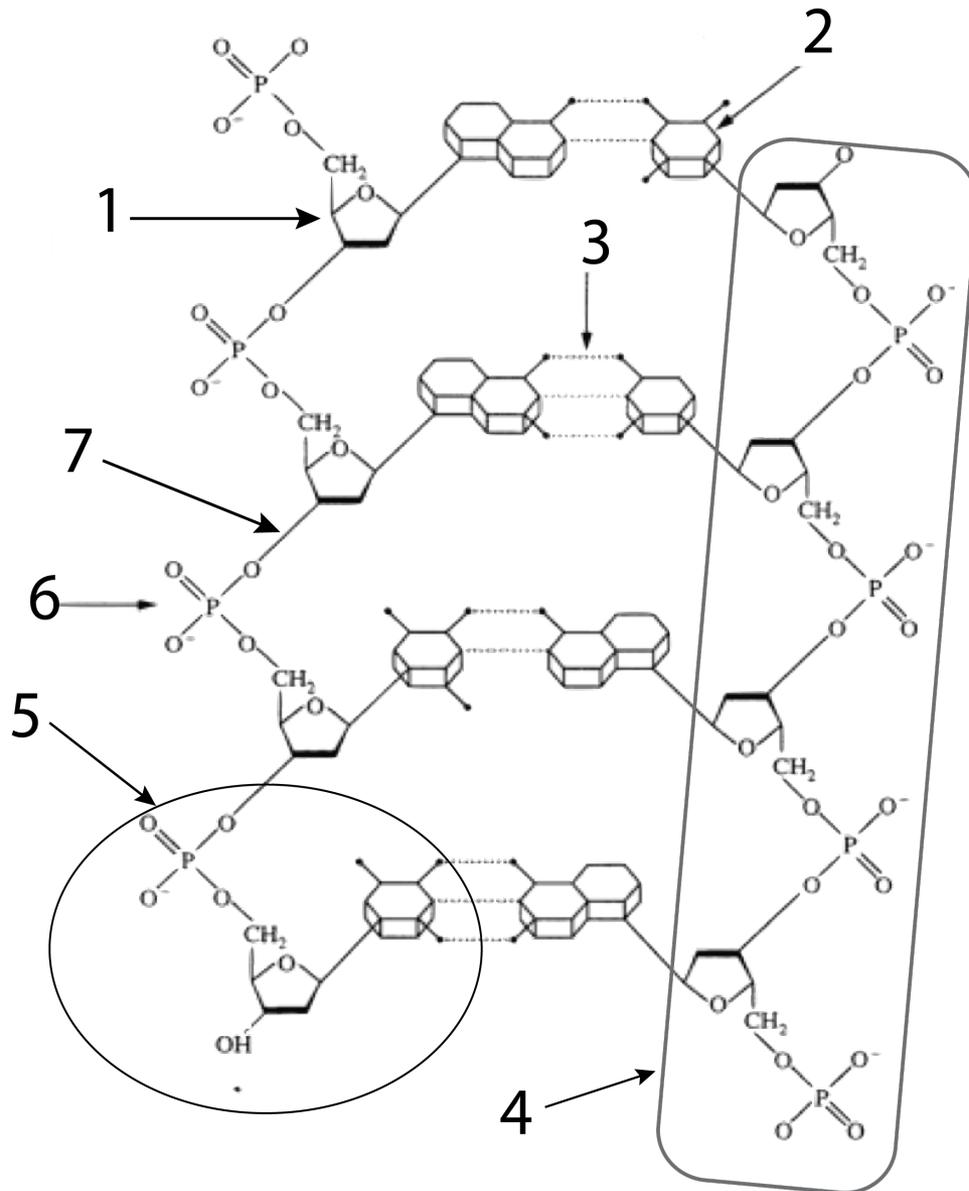
# Base pairing rules

(no writing needed)



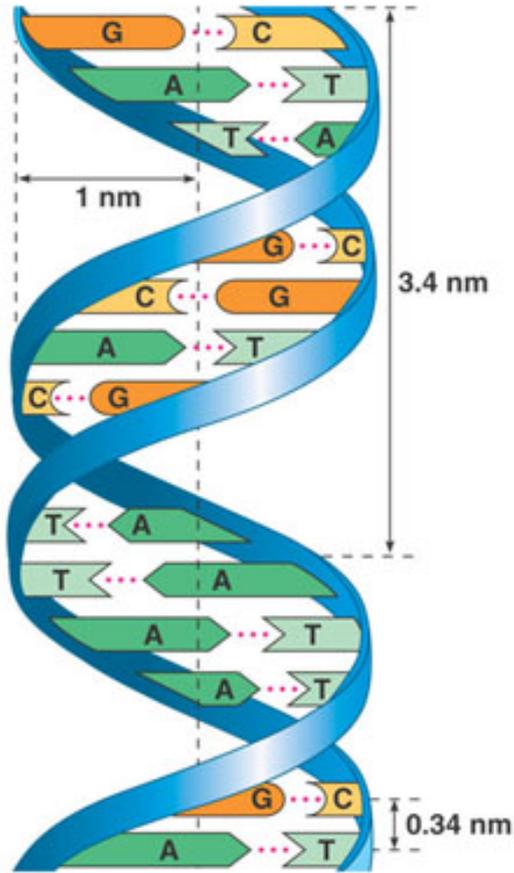
- Two purines: too wide
- Two pyrimidines: too narrow
- A purine and a pyrimidine:  
just right!

# Checking Understanding



1. Deoxyribose
2. Nitrogenous base
3. Hydrogen bond
4. Sugar-phosphate backbone
5. Nucleotide
6. Phosphate group
7. Sugar-phosphate bond

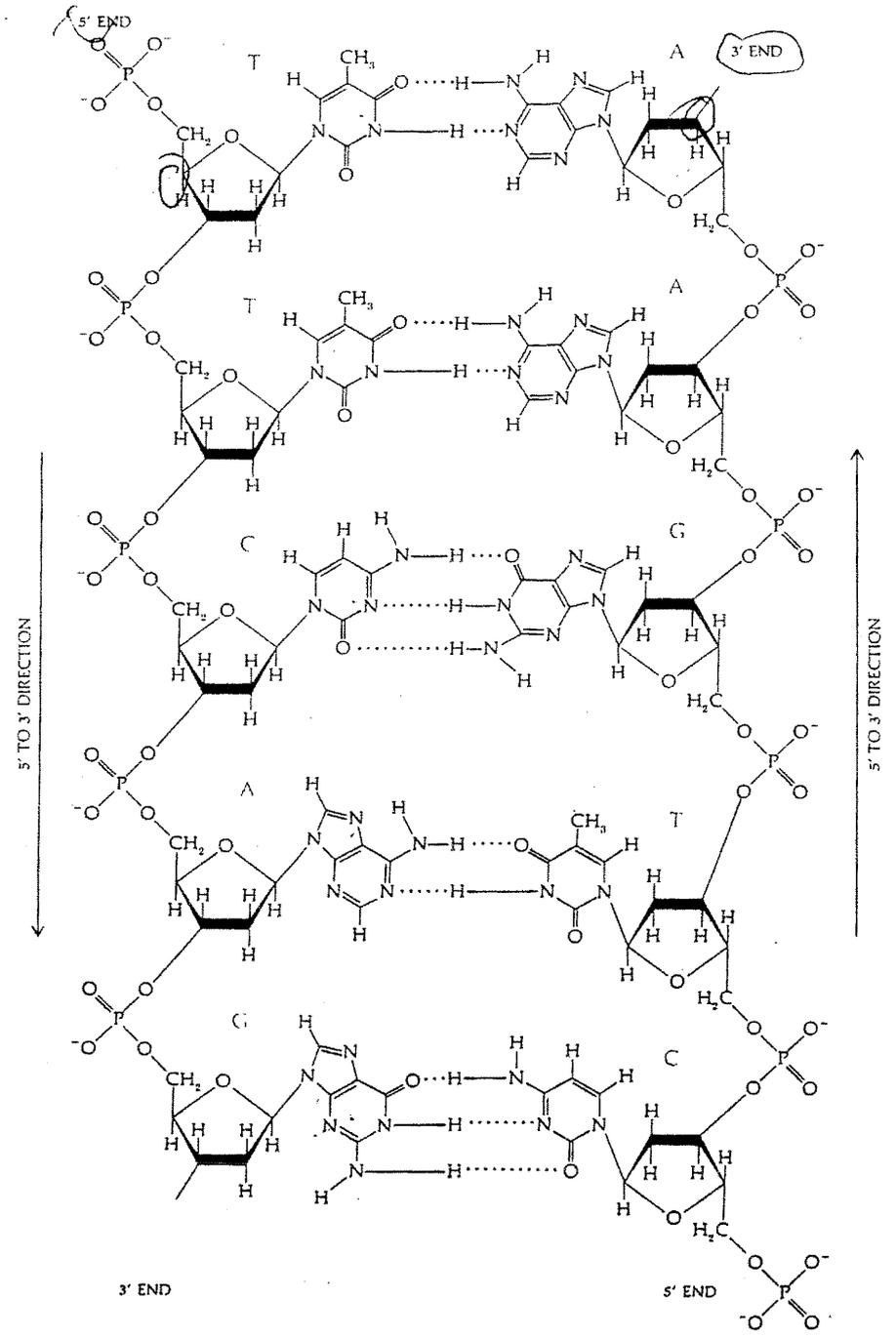
# DNA's dimensions



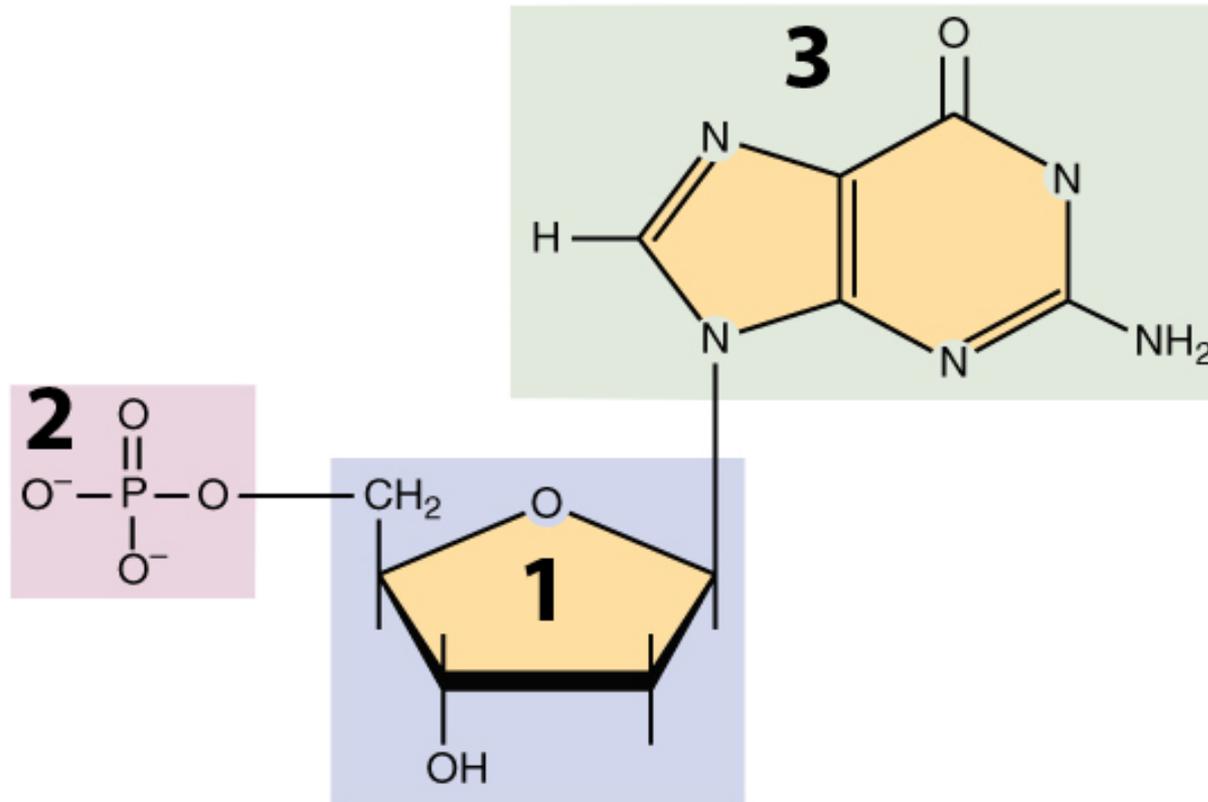
(a) Key features of DNA structure

- Length is *indeterminate*
- Diameter is 2 nanometers
- Adjacent bases are .34 nm apart
- 10 bases make one turn, and a turn is 3.4 nm

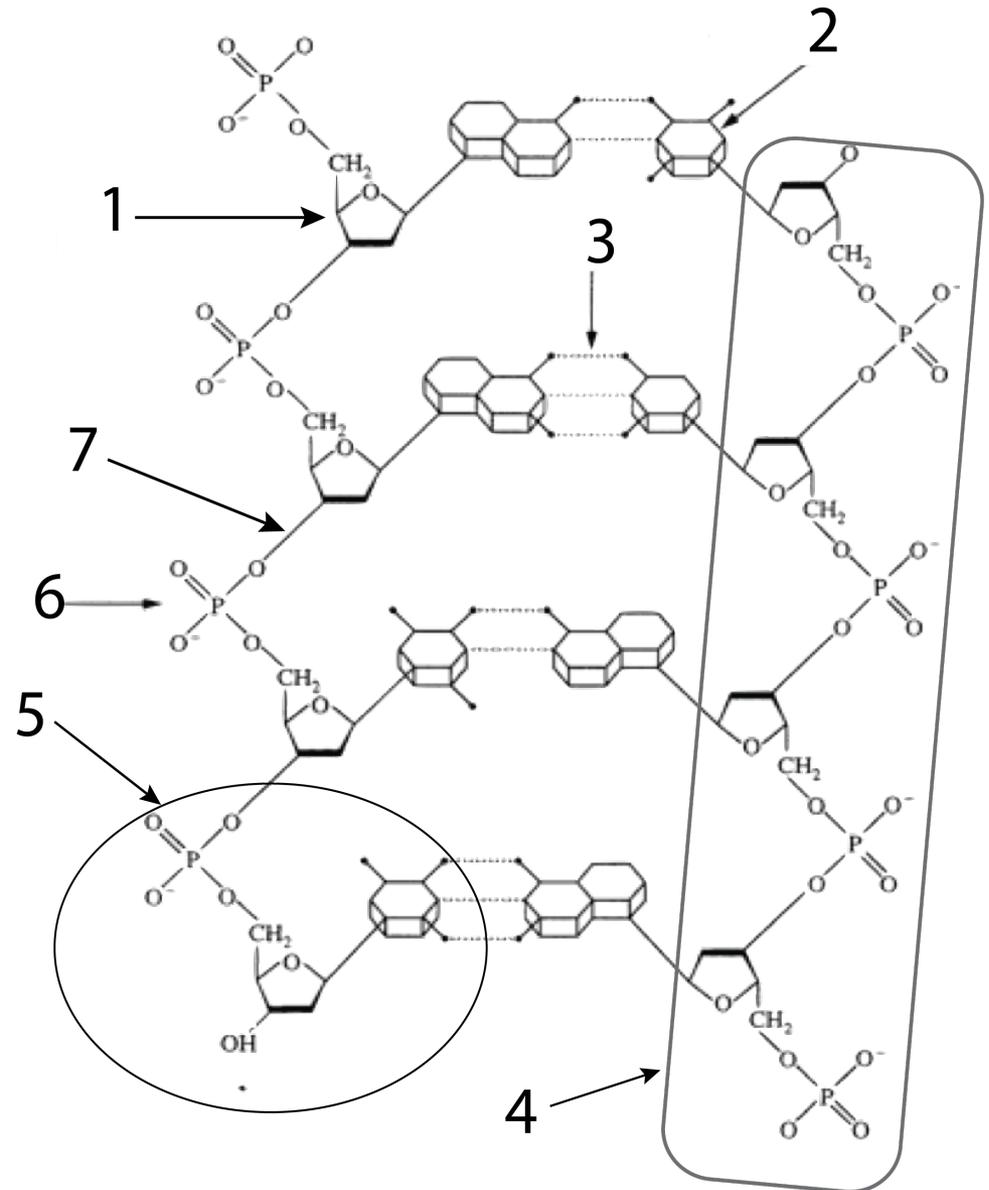
# Study your notes...



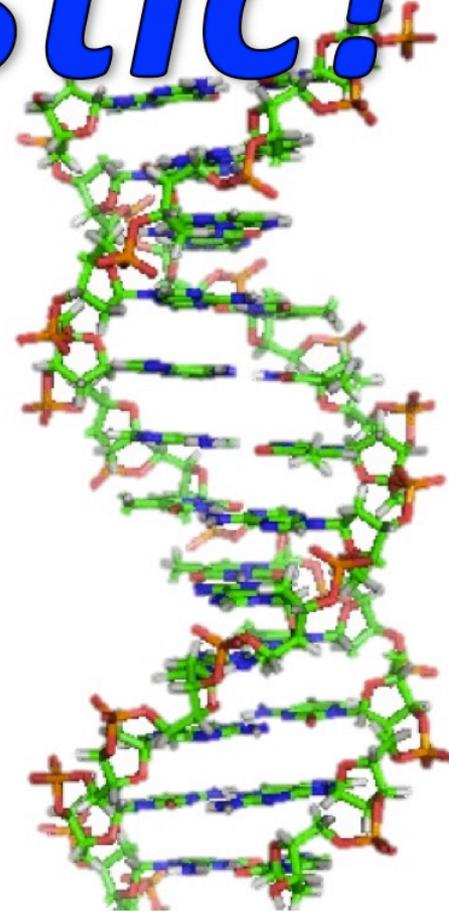
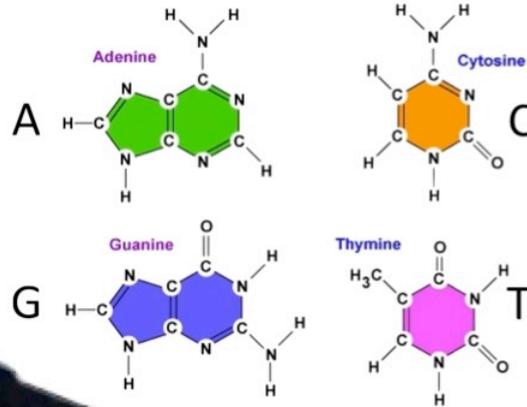
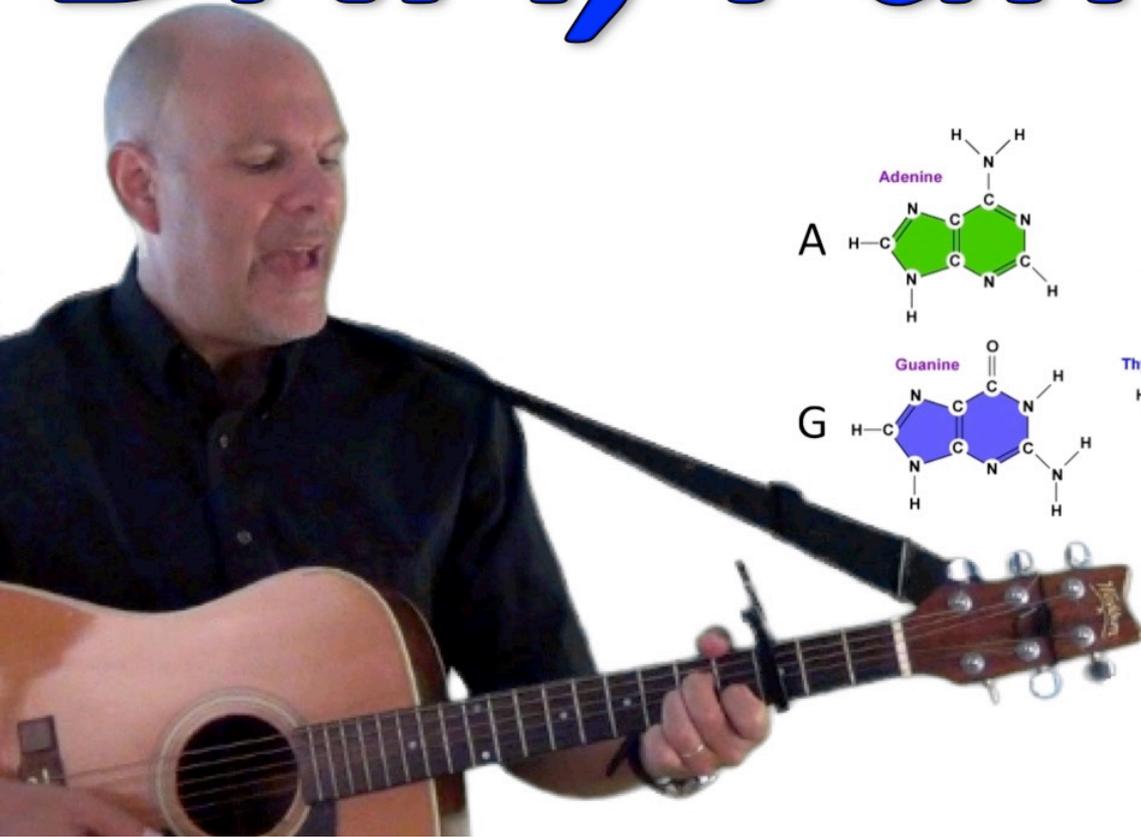
# Checking Understanding



# Checking Understanding



# DNA, Fantastic!



In your notes, identify parts “a” through “o” from your diagram with the terms at left. Then answer the questions and do the crossword puzzle!

**.34 nm**

**2 nm**

**3.4 nm**

**A single nucleotide**

**Adenine**

**Base pair**

**Cytosine**

**Deoxyribose**

**Guanine**

**Hydrogen bond**

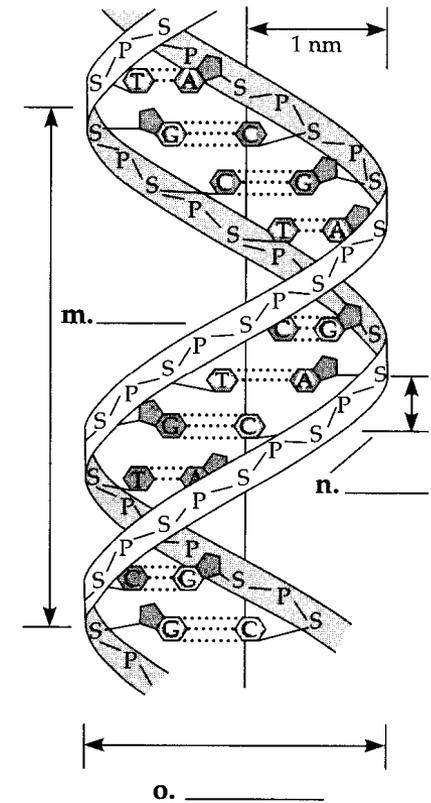
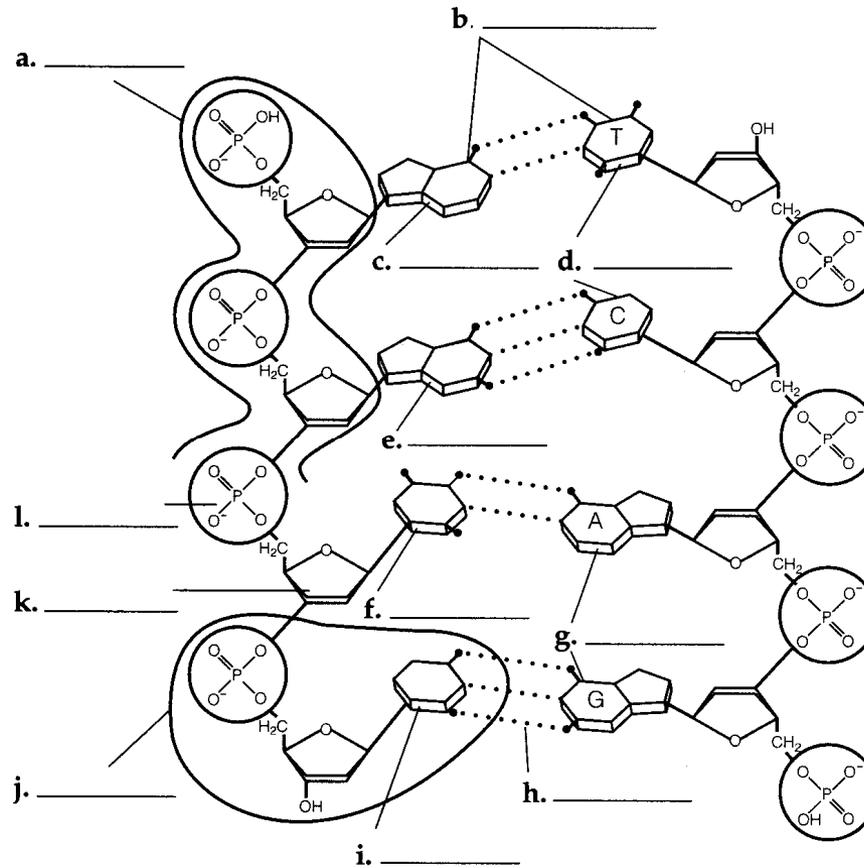
**Phosphate**

**Purine bases**

**Pyrimidine bases**

**Sugar phosphate backbone**

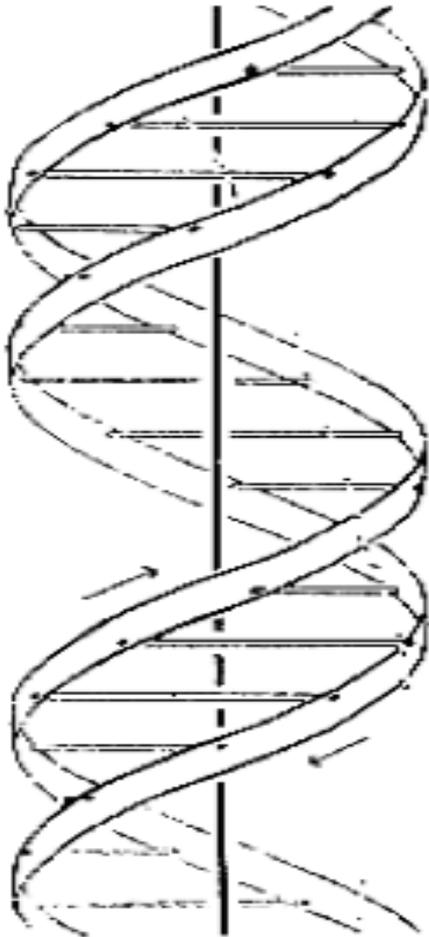
**Thymine**



# And the answers are...

- a) Sugar phosphate backbone
- b) Base pair
- c) Adenine
- d) Pyrimidine bases (one nitrogen ring)
- e) Guanine
- f) Thymine
- g) Purine bases (two nitrogen rings). Notice that A:T and C:G take up the same amount of space, fitting neatly inside the helix.
- h) Hydrogen bond (3 between C and G; 2 between A and T).
- i) Cytosine
- j) A single nucleotide
- k) Deoxyribose
- l) Phosphate
- m) 3.4 nm (10 bp: distance it takes for the helix to make one complete turn)
- n) .34 nm (distance between nucleotides)
- o) 2 nm: diameter of the double helix (which was determined by Rosalind Franklin's X-ray photographs)

# DNA Replication



....It has not escaped our notice that the specific pairing we have postulated immediately suggests a possible copying mechanism for the genetic material...

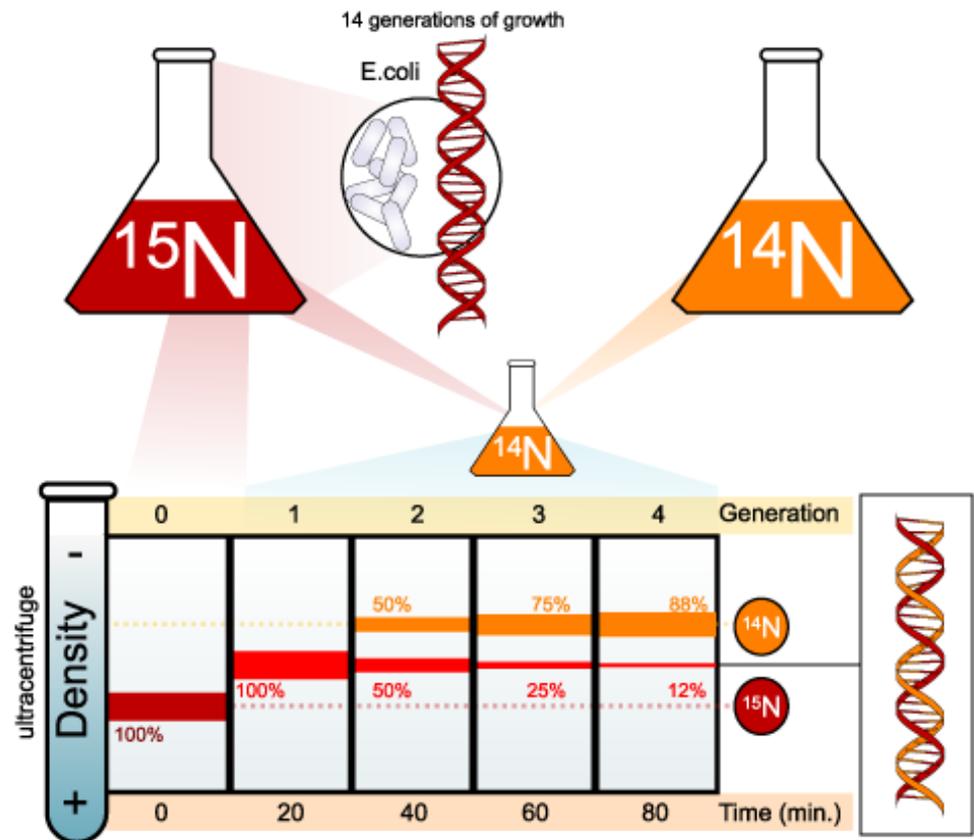
Watson and Crick,  
*Nature*, Vol. 171,  
25 April 1953,  
**MOLECULAR  
STRUCTURE OF  
NUCLEIC ACIDS**



# Meselson-Stahl Experiment

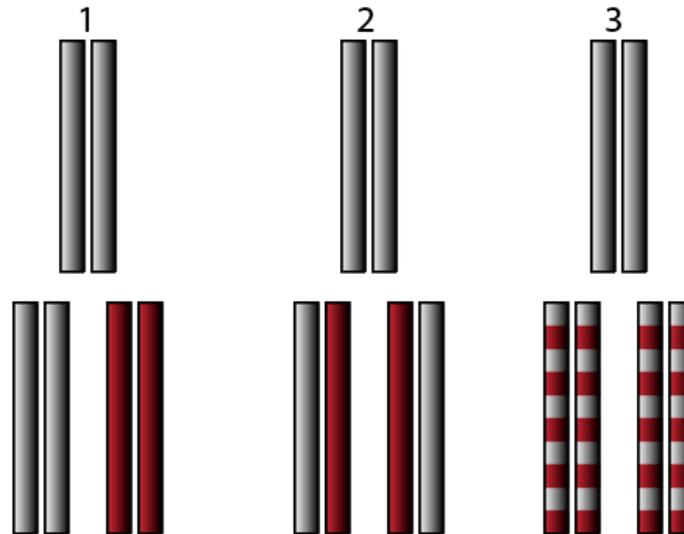
The “most beautiful experiment in biology”

Pulse-chase is a two-phase technique used to examine cellular processes that take place over a period of time. During the **pulse** phase of the experiment, cells are exposed to a labeled compound. The labeled compound is incorporated into the molecule or pathway being studied. In the **chase** phase, an unlabeled form replaces the labeled compound. The reaction is monitored to see how long it takes the labeled form of the compound to be replaced by the unlabeled form.



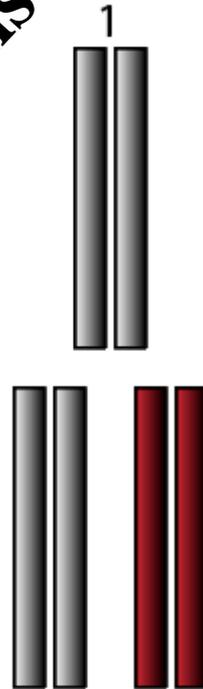
# Models of Replication

- 1, 2, and 3 are the original double stranded DNA
- The new DNA is in red
- In words, describe how these three models are different.

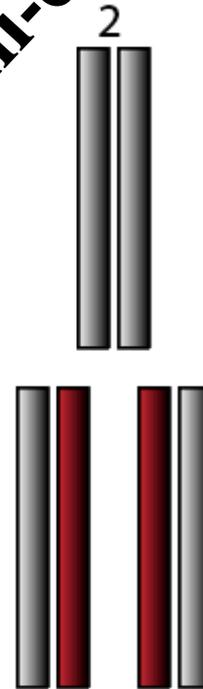


# Models of Replication

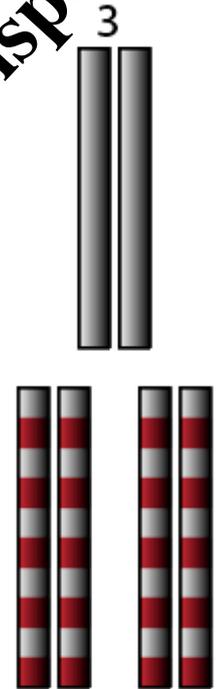
*Conservative*



*Semi-conservative*



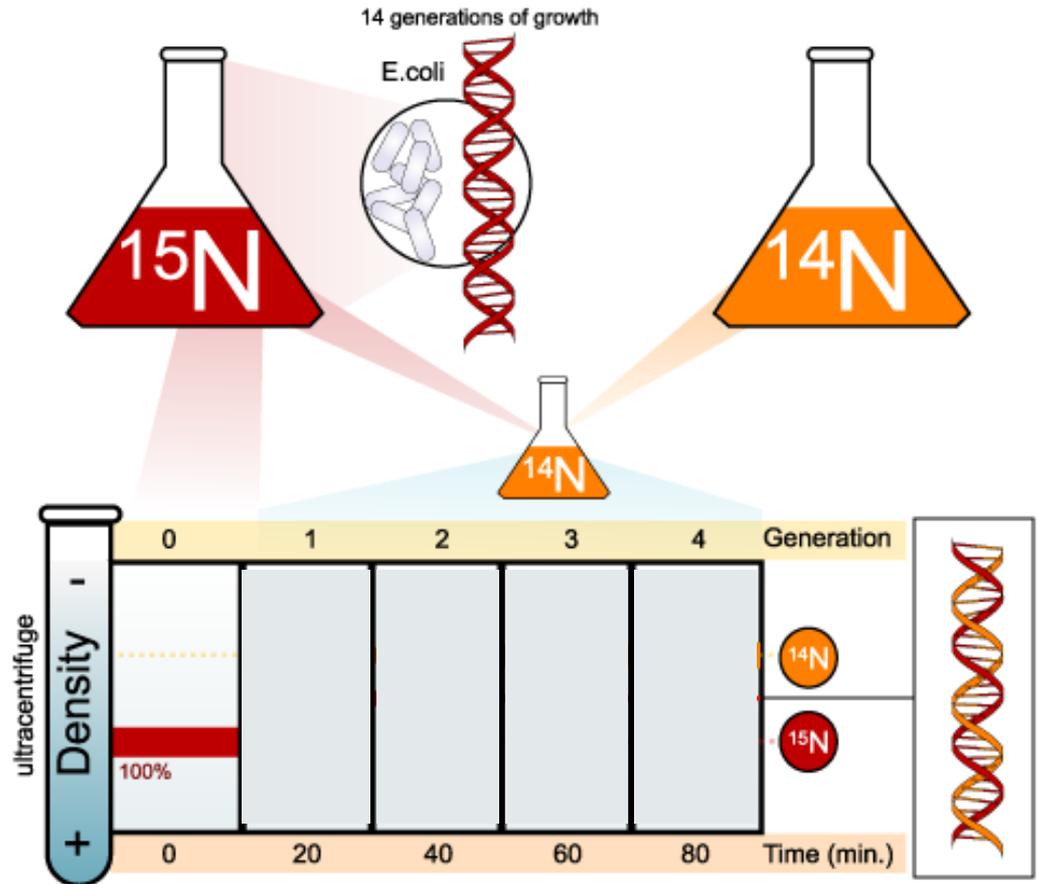
*Dispersive*

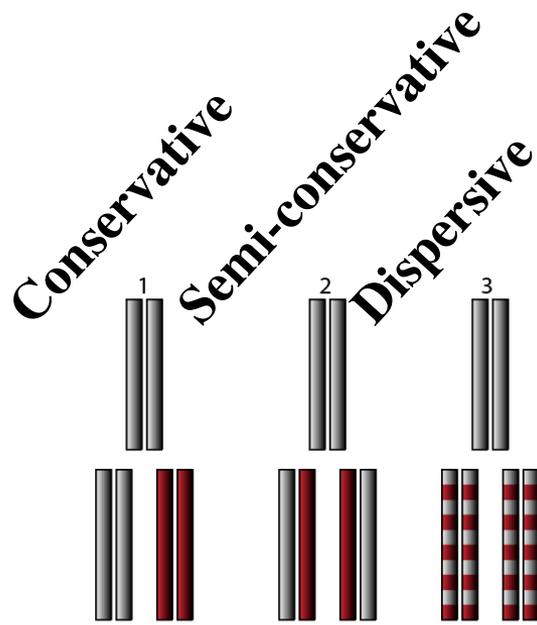




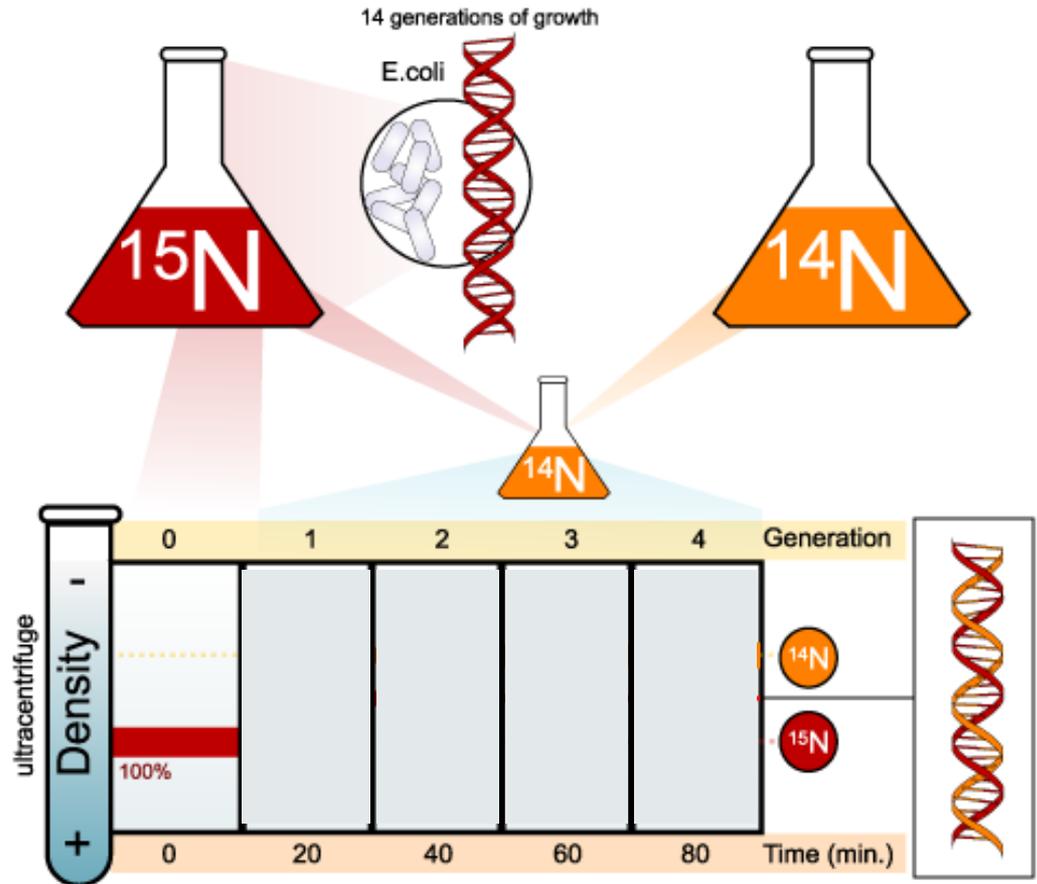
# Meselson Stahl Experiment (method)

1. Grow *E. coli* in a medium with heavy isotope of nitrogen ( $^{15}\text{N}$ )
2. Transfer  $^{15}\text{N}$  bacteria to a medium with normal nitrogen ( $^{14}\text{N}$ )
3. As bacteria reproduce, they can only use  $^{14}\text{N}$
4. Every generation, test the density of the bacterial DNA.





*Predict!*



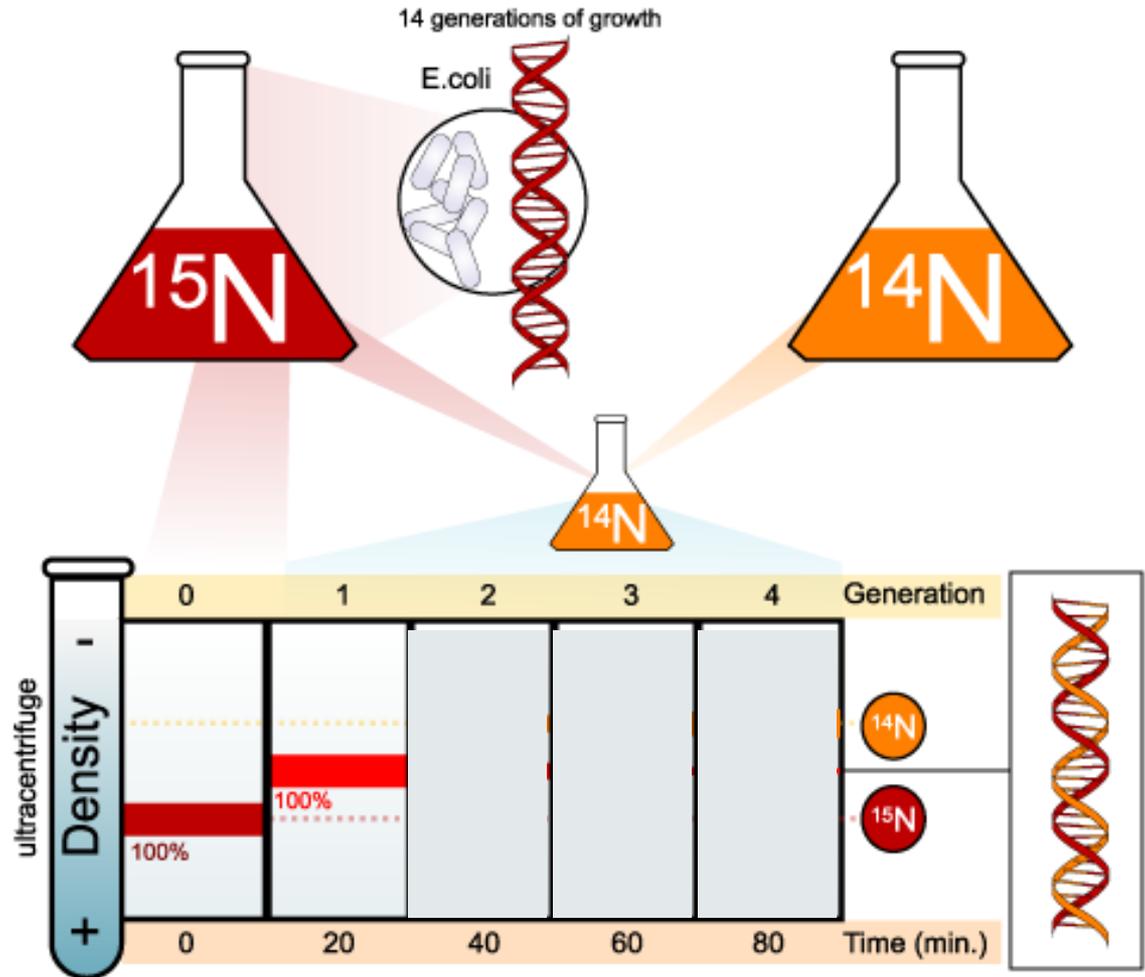
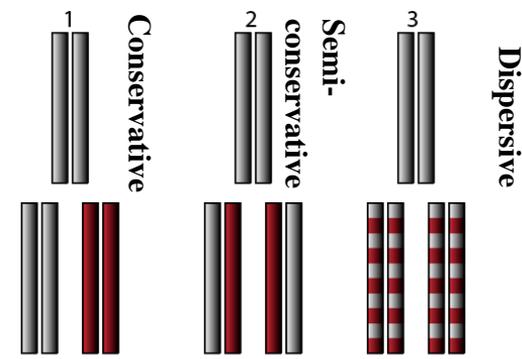
- *Density in generation 0 is 100%  $^{15}\text{N}$ .*
- *What will be the density in generation 1? Generation 2?*

# Meselson Stahl Results (1)

5. Generation 0: all DNA has the density of  $N^{15}$ .

6. Generation 1: All the DNA has density of  $N^{14.5}$

What does generation 1 prove?



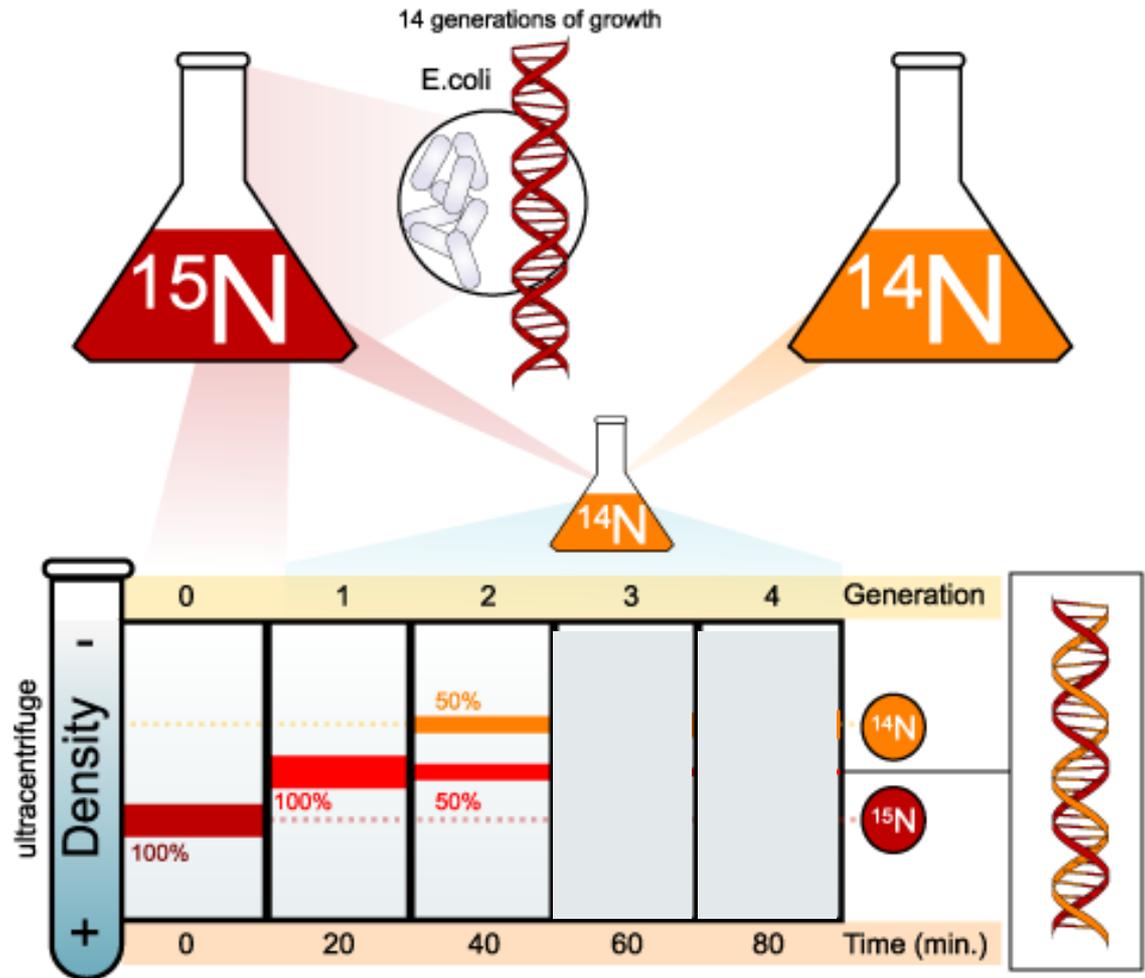
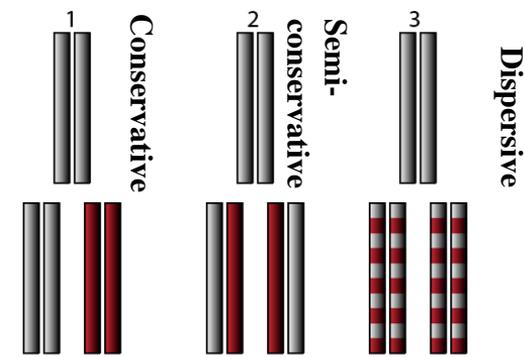
# Meselson Stahl Results (2)

## 7. Generation 2:

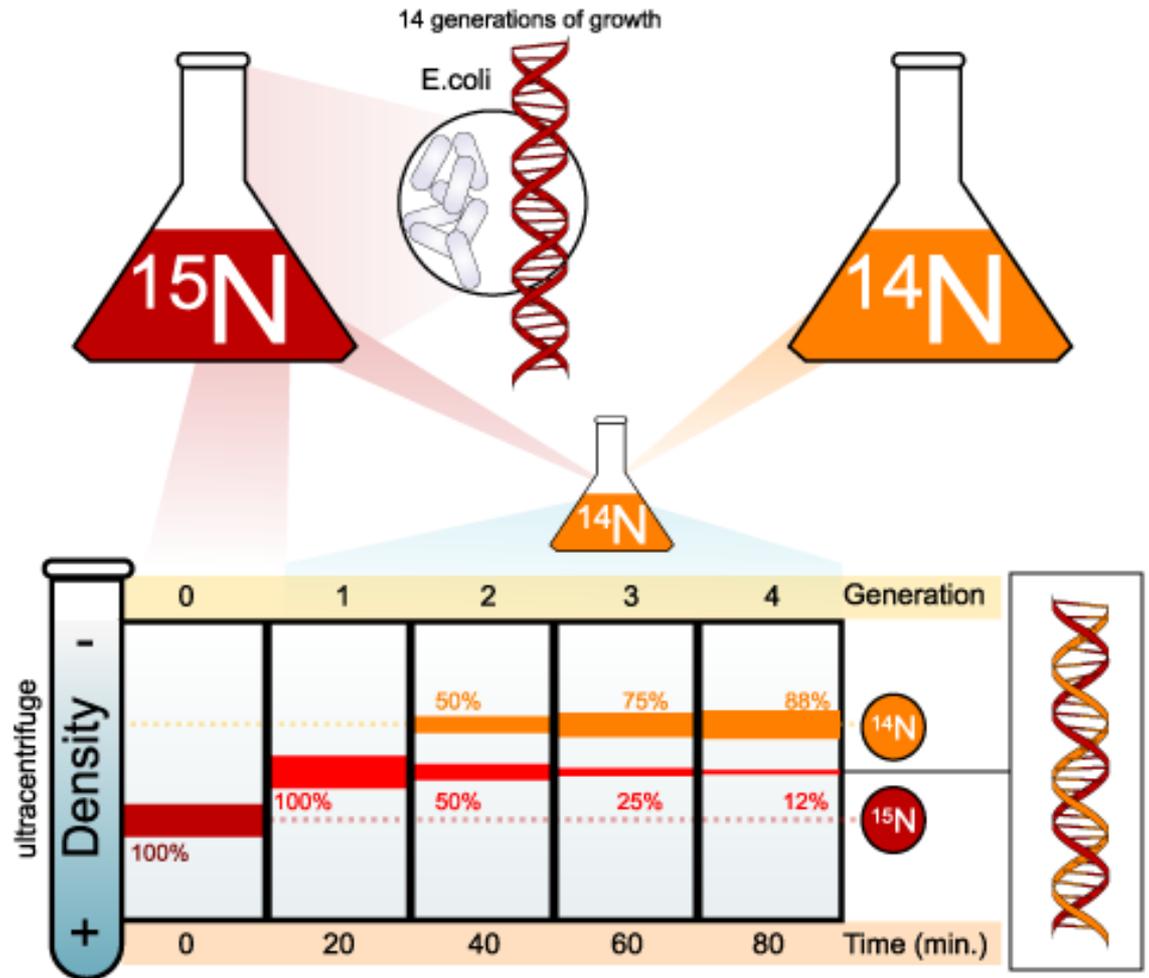
1. Some DNA has density of 14.5
2. Some DNA has density of 14

## 8. After Generation 3: same as 2

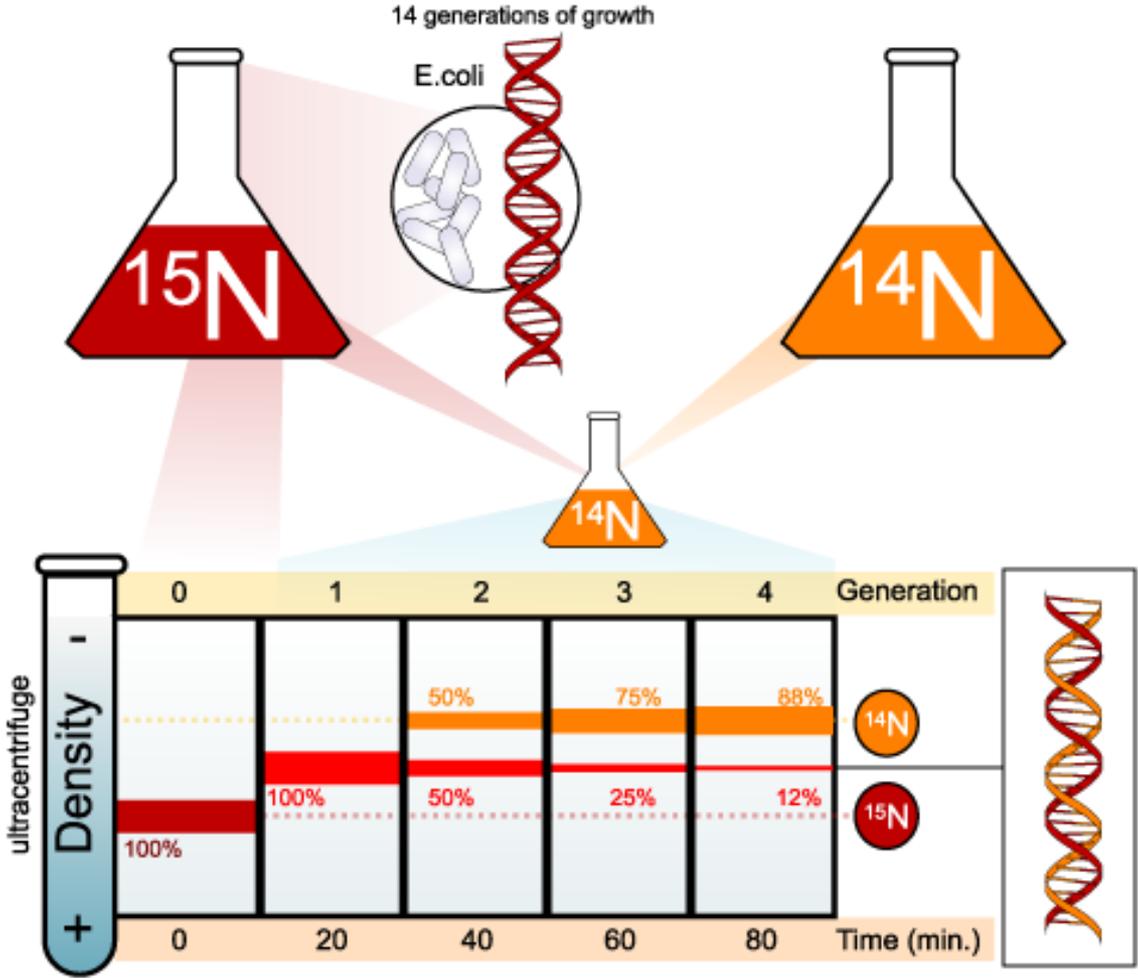
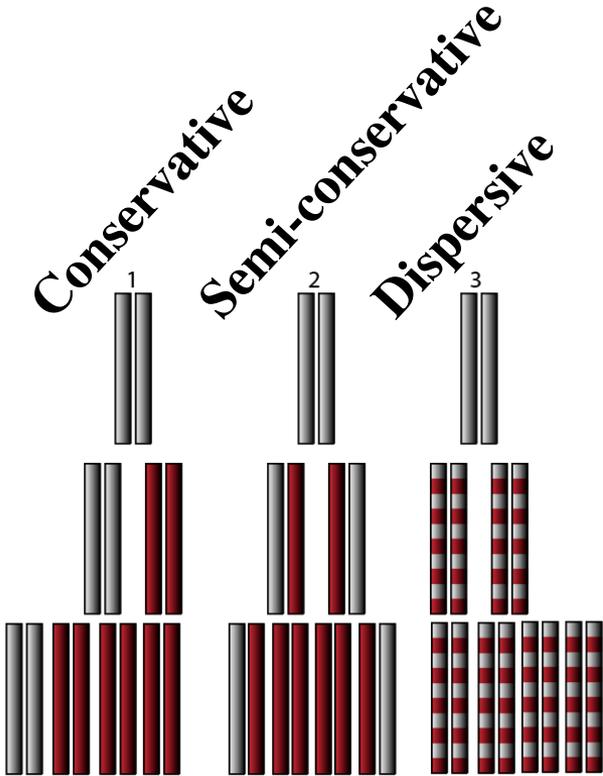
What does generation 2 prove?



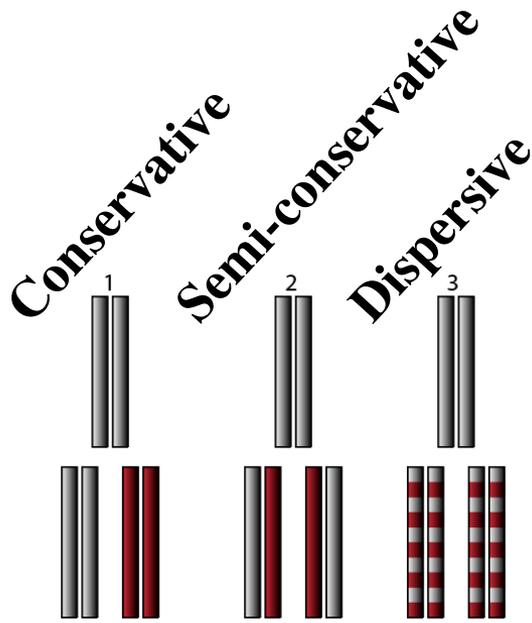
# Meselson Stahl Results



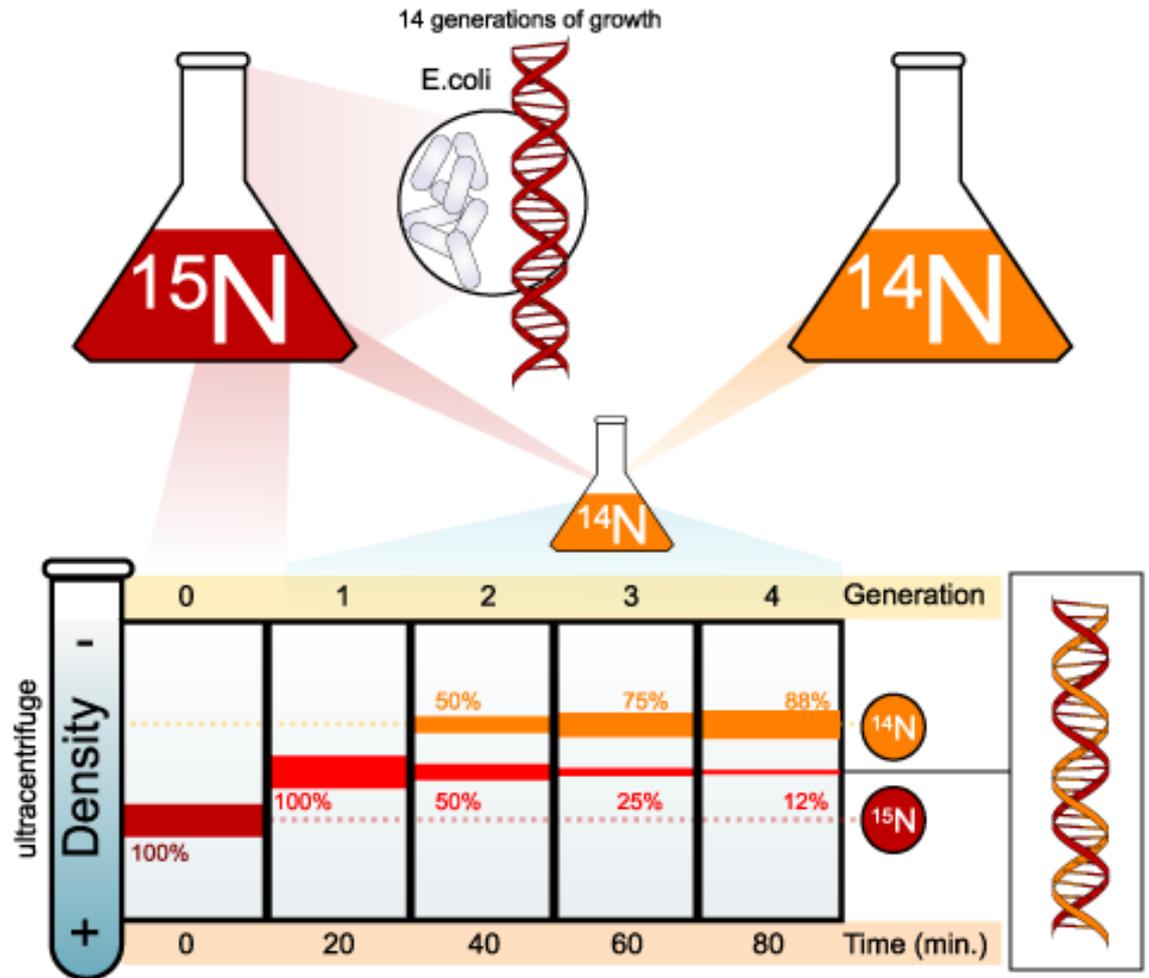
# Which Model is Correct?



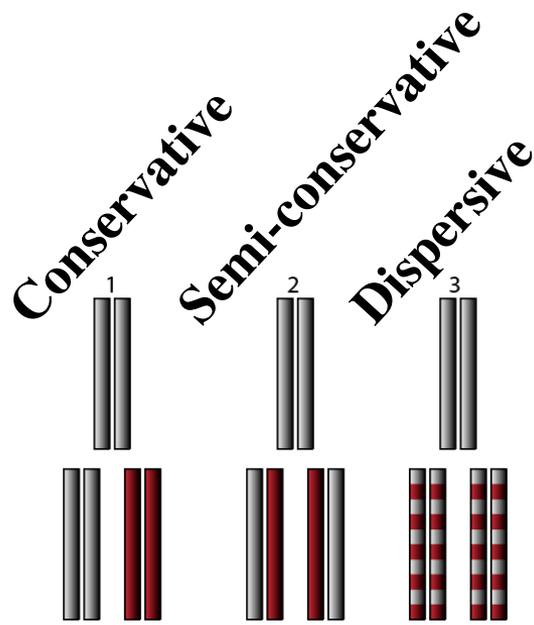
# Which Model is Correct?



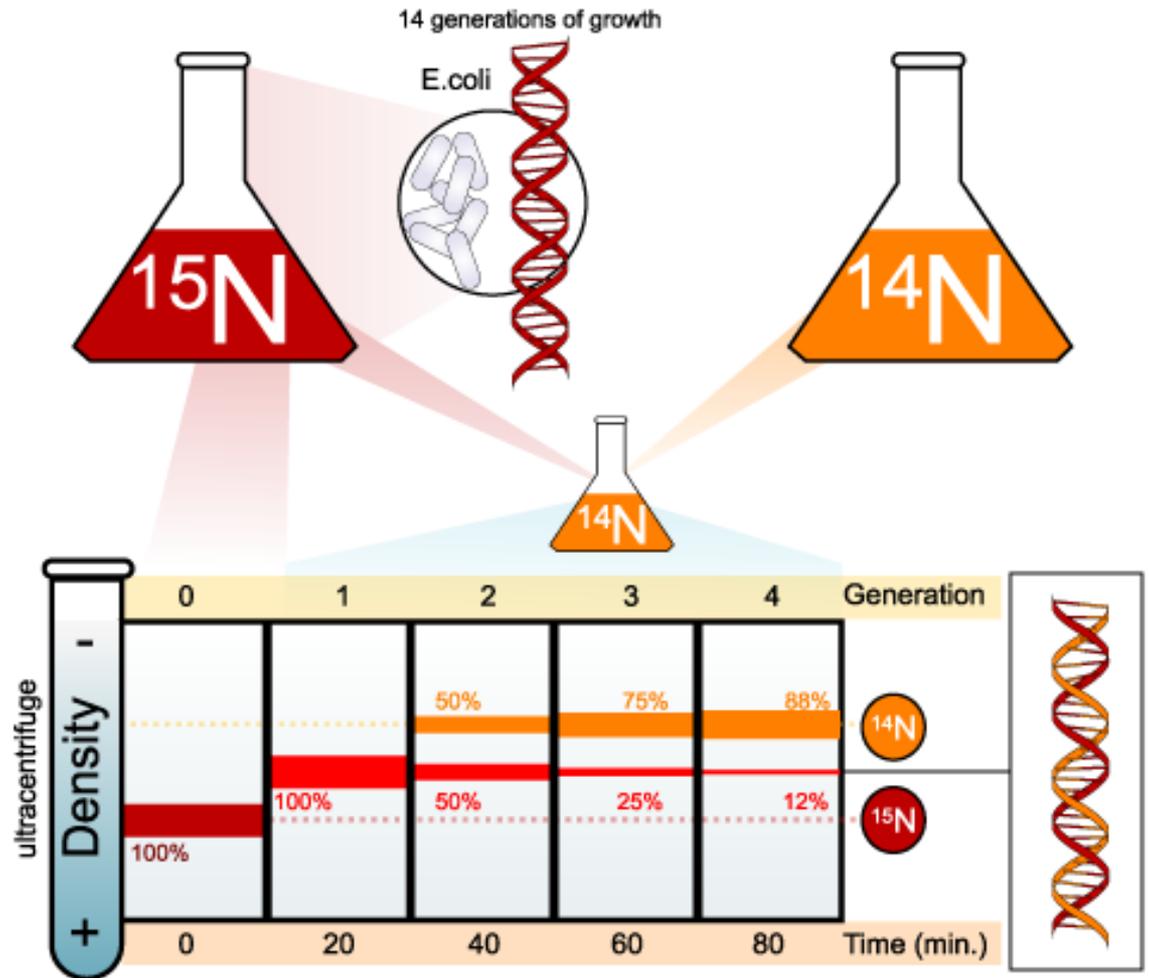
- Generation 1 eliminates \_\_\_\_\_
- Generation 2 eliminates \_\_\_\_\_



# Meselson-Stahl



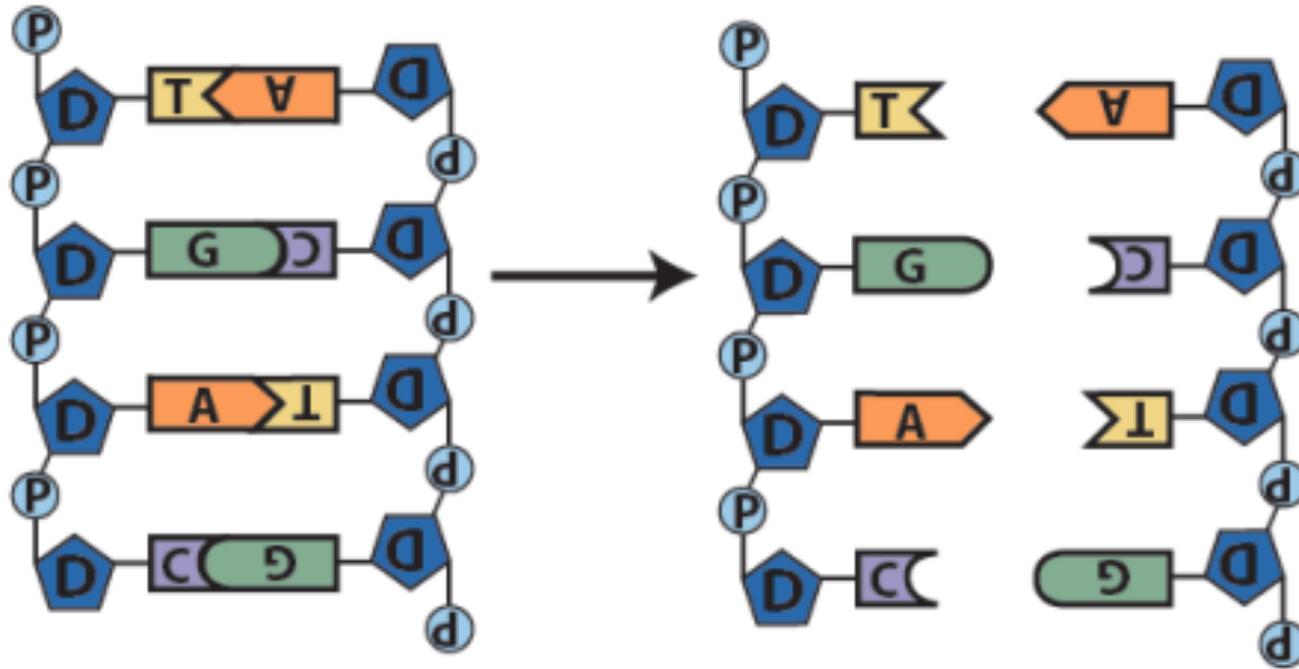
Write a brief summary of how they established semi-conservative replication as the mode of DNA replication.



So, how is DNA actually copied

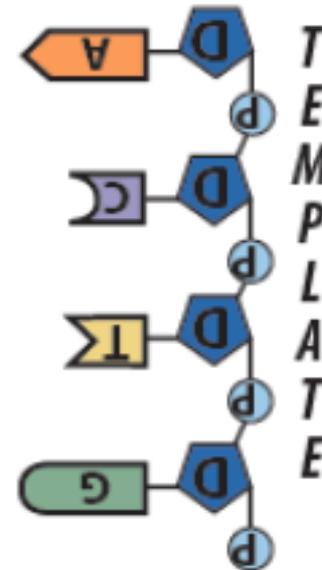
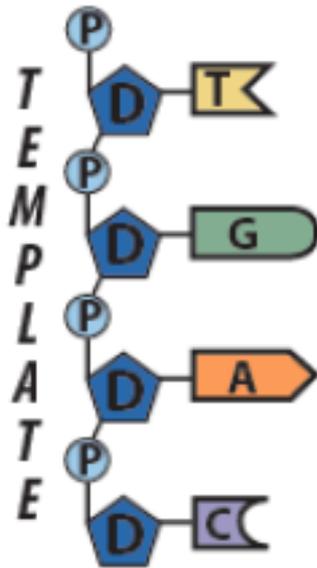
# DNA Replication: Big Picture (1)

- The strands separate



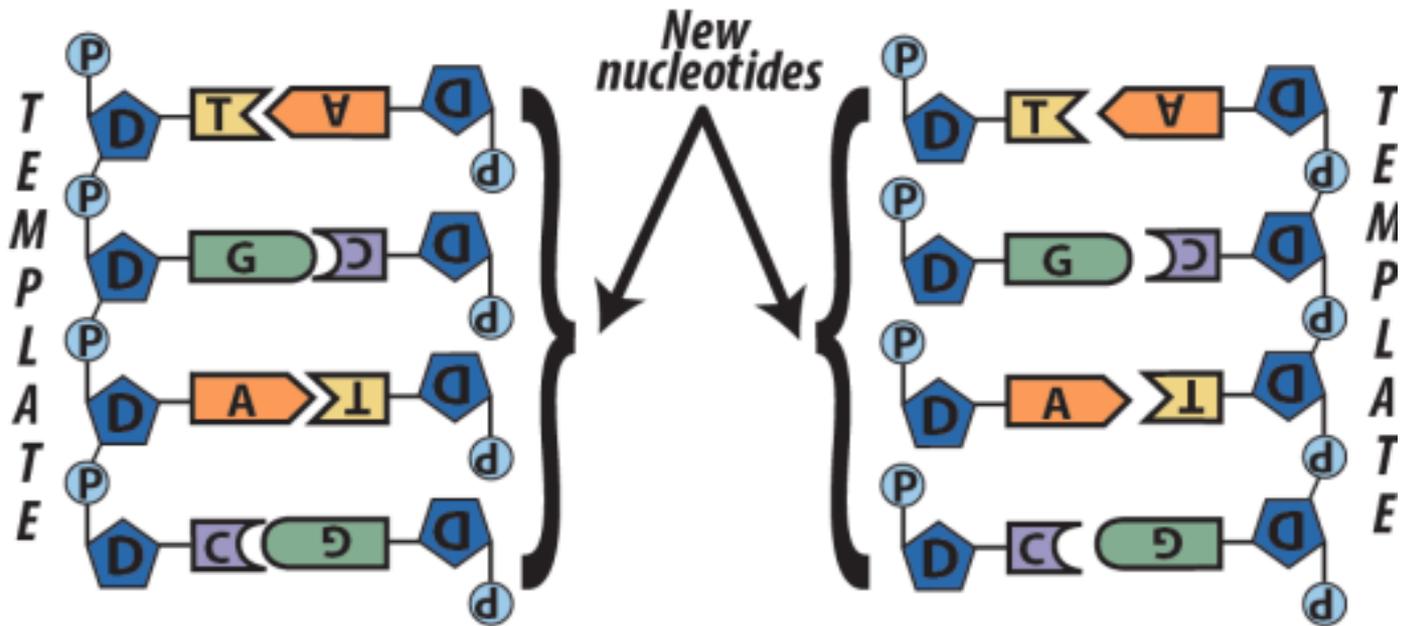
# DNA Replication: Big Picture (2)

- Each single strand now serves as a template for synthesis of a new strand.



# DNA Replication: Big Picture (3)

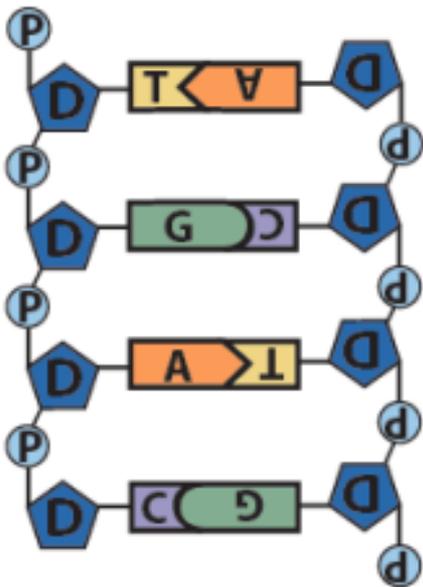
- New complementary nucleotides bind with the parent strands



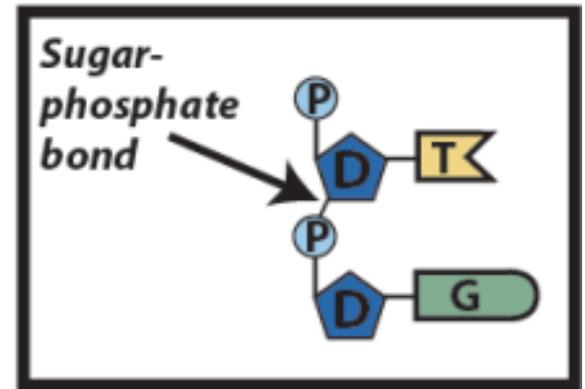
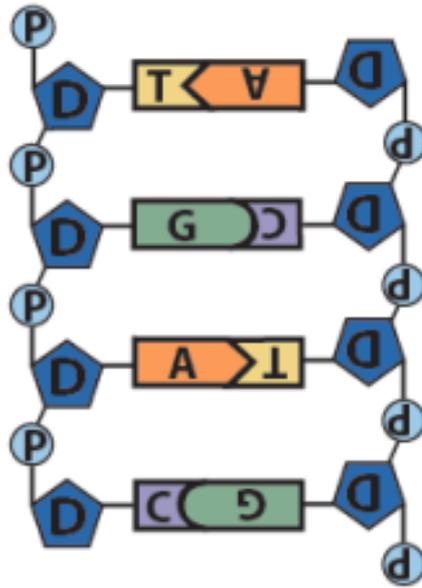
# DNA Replication: Big Picture (4)

- Enzymes seal covalent bonds between the sugars and the phosphates of adjacent nucleotides.

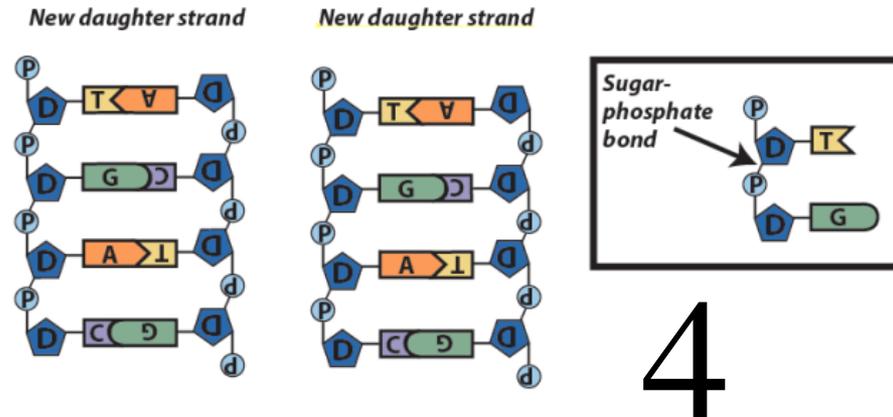
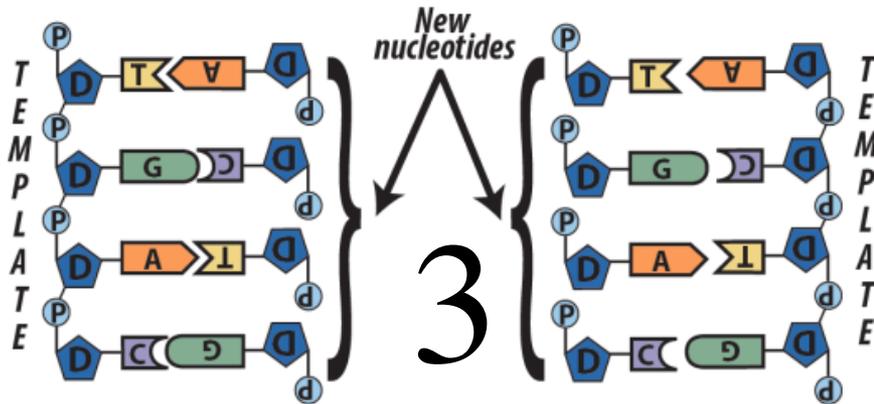
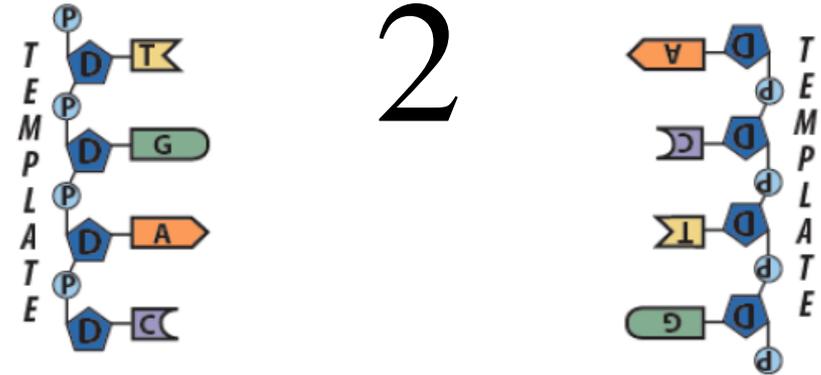
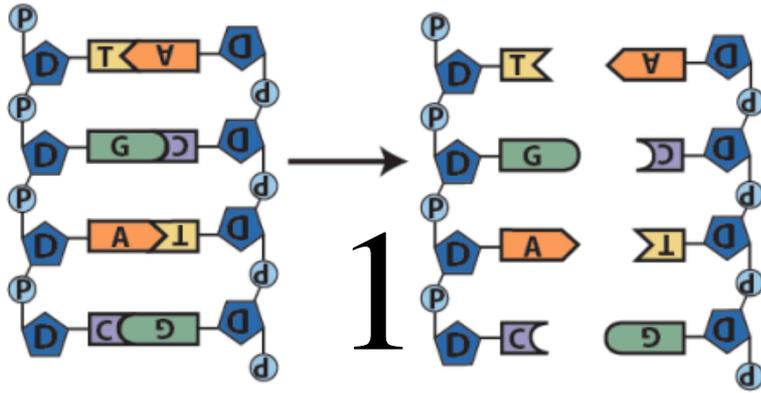
*New daughter strand*



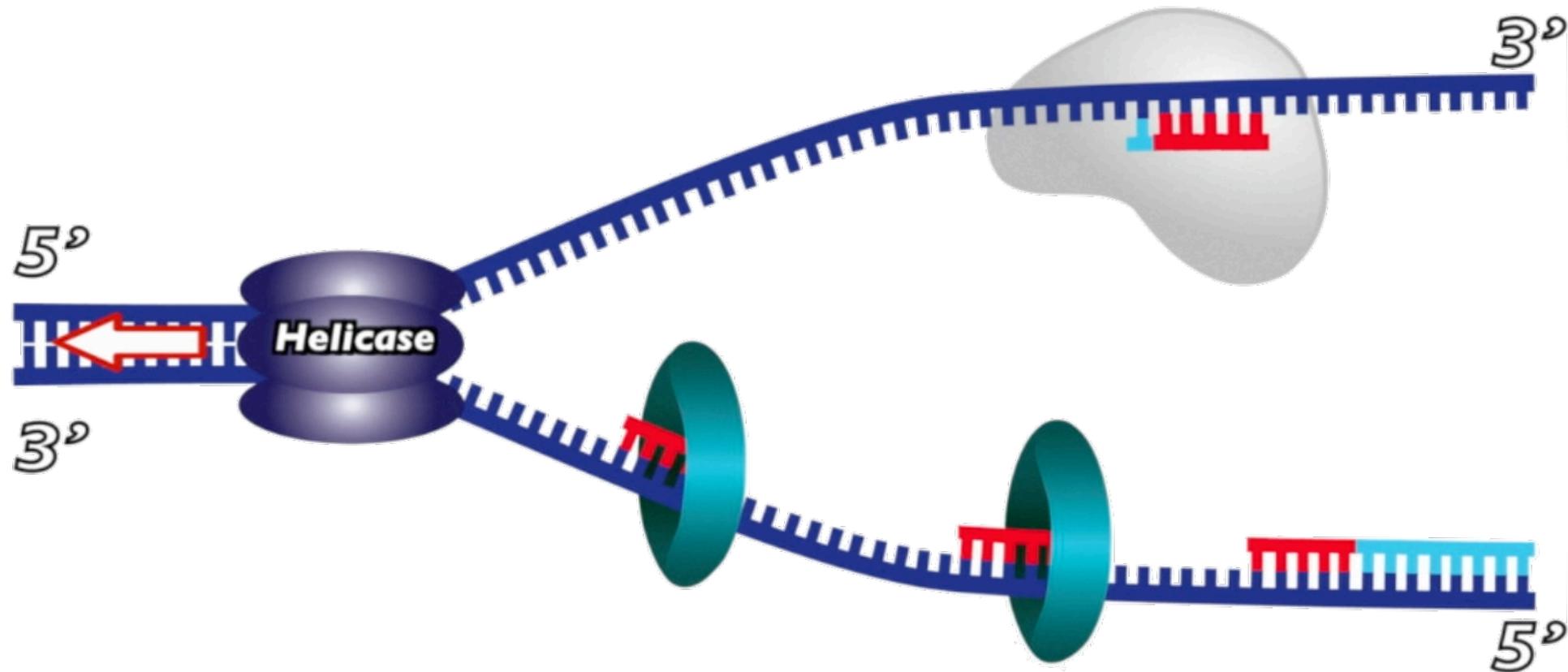
*New daughter strand*



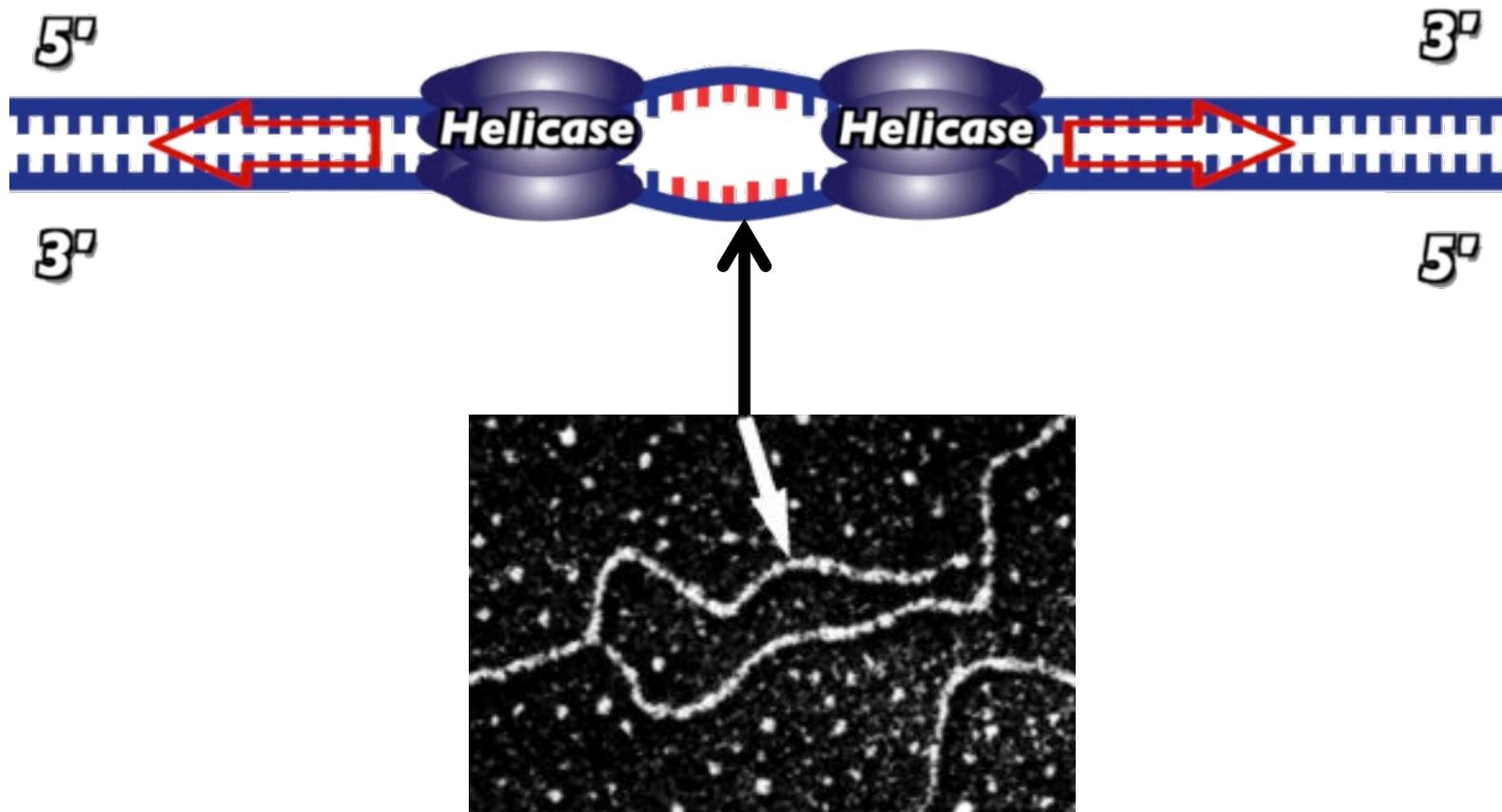
# Explain the whole process



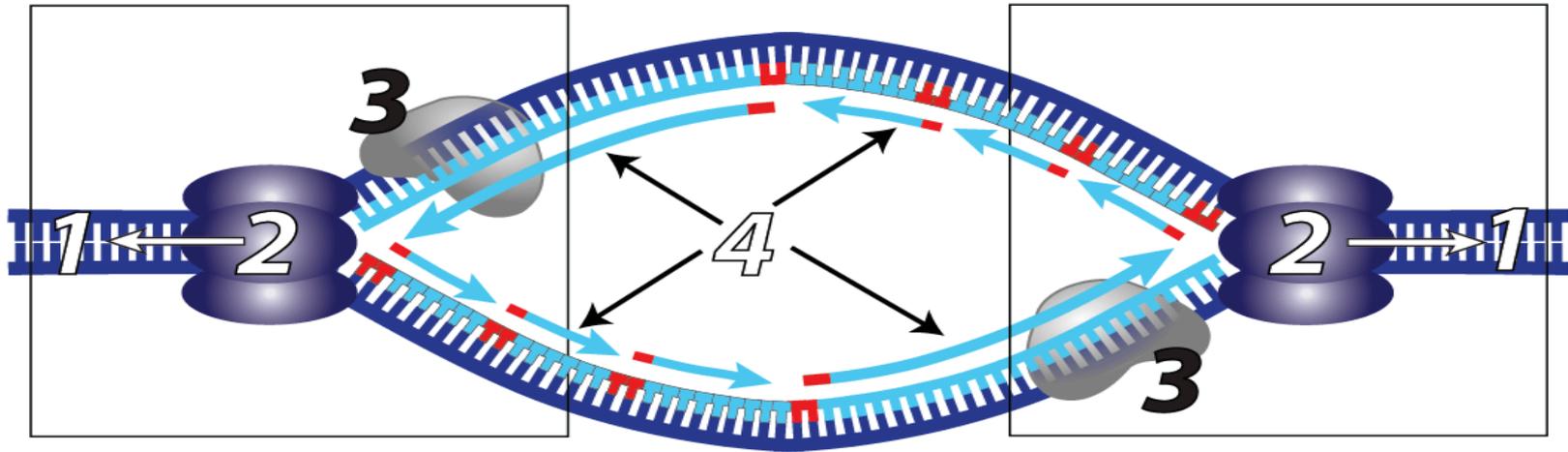
In cells, blind, mindless, enzymes  
have to do this entire process by  
touch and feel...



Replication begins as DNA helicase finds an *origin*, and creates a *replication bubble*

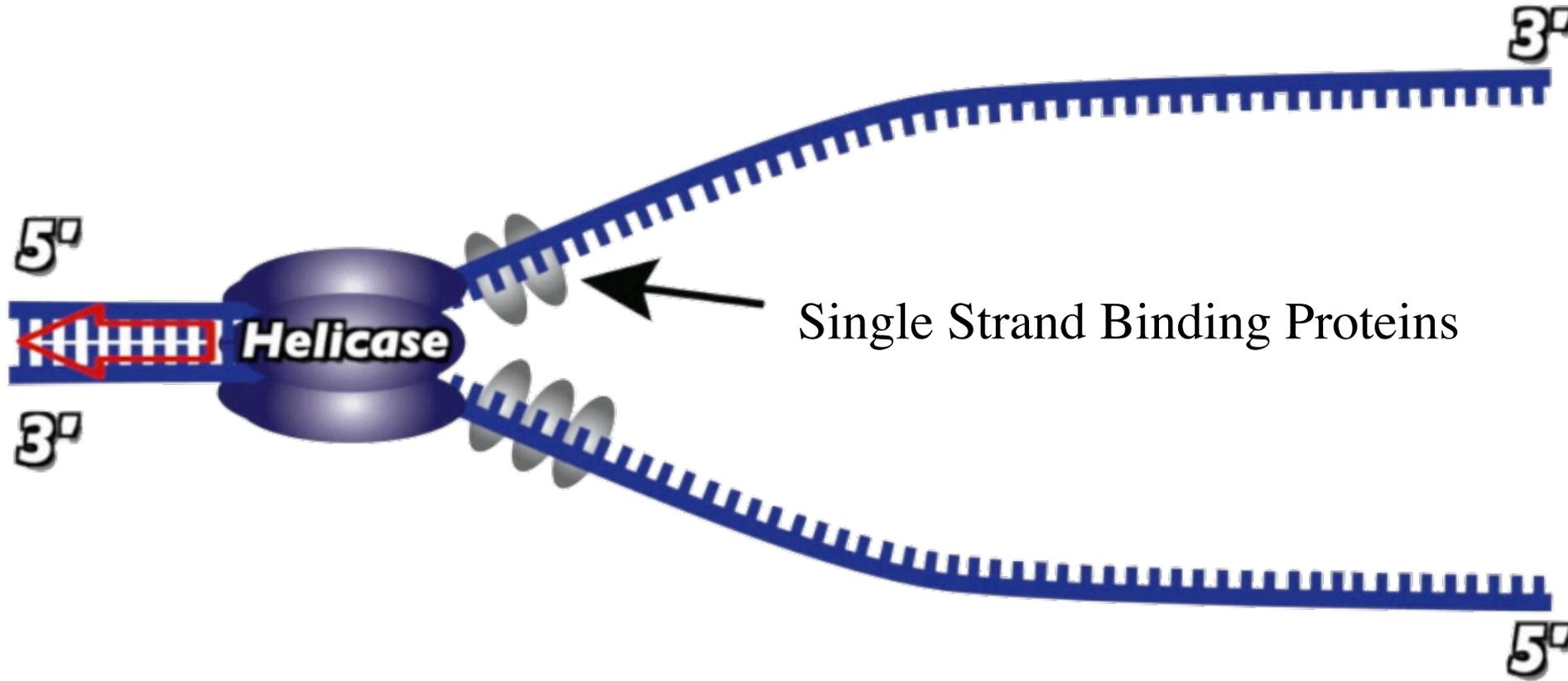


The bubble has two *replication forks*

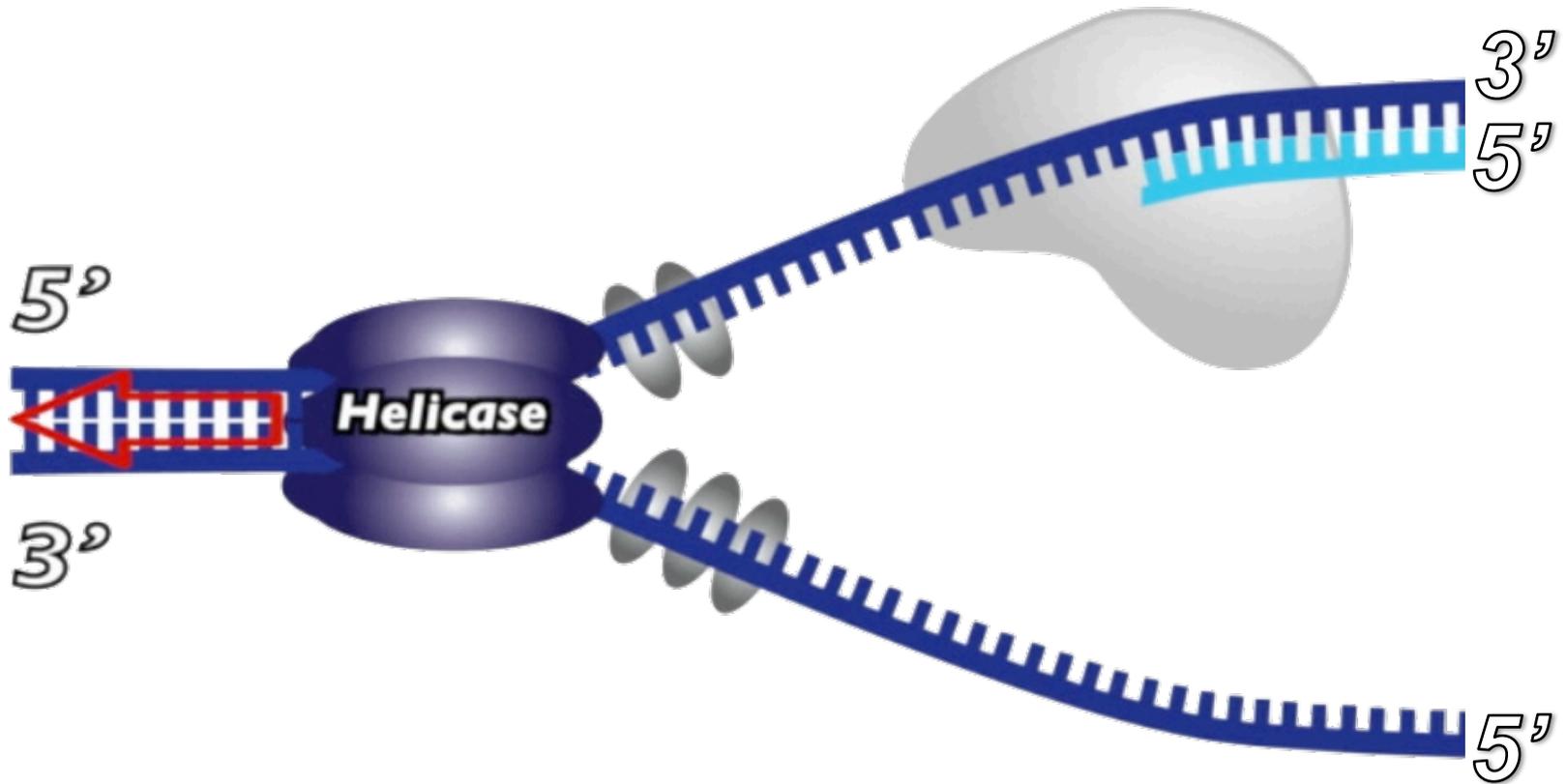


1. Original DNA
2. Helicase
3. DNA polymerase
4. New DNA

# Single Strand Binding Proteins keep DNA from rewinding

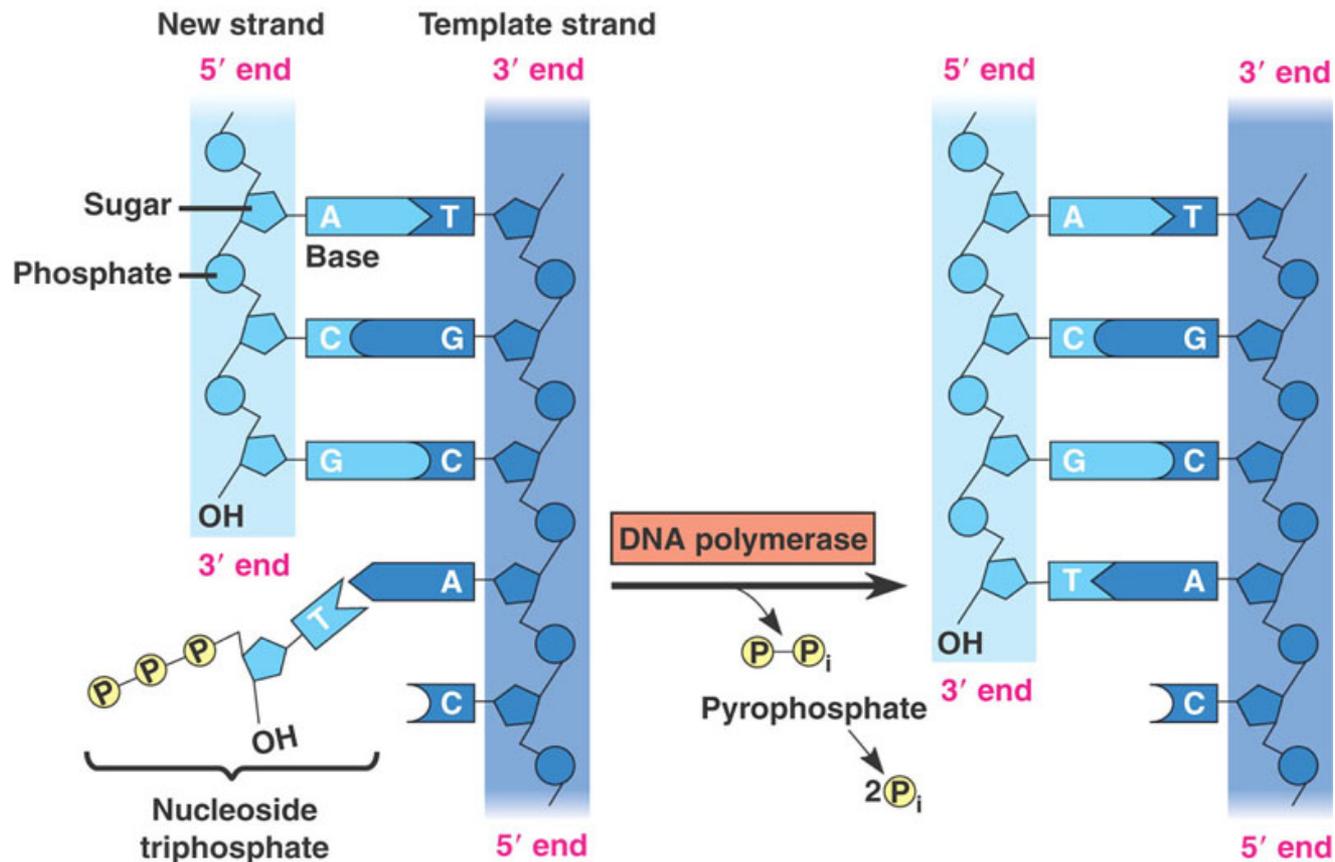


DNA polymerase III uses the parent strand as a template and adds a new nucleotide at the 3' end



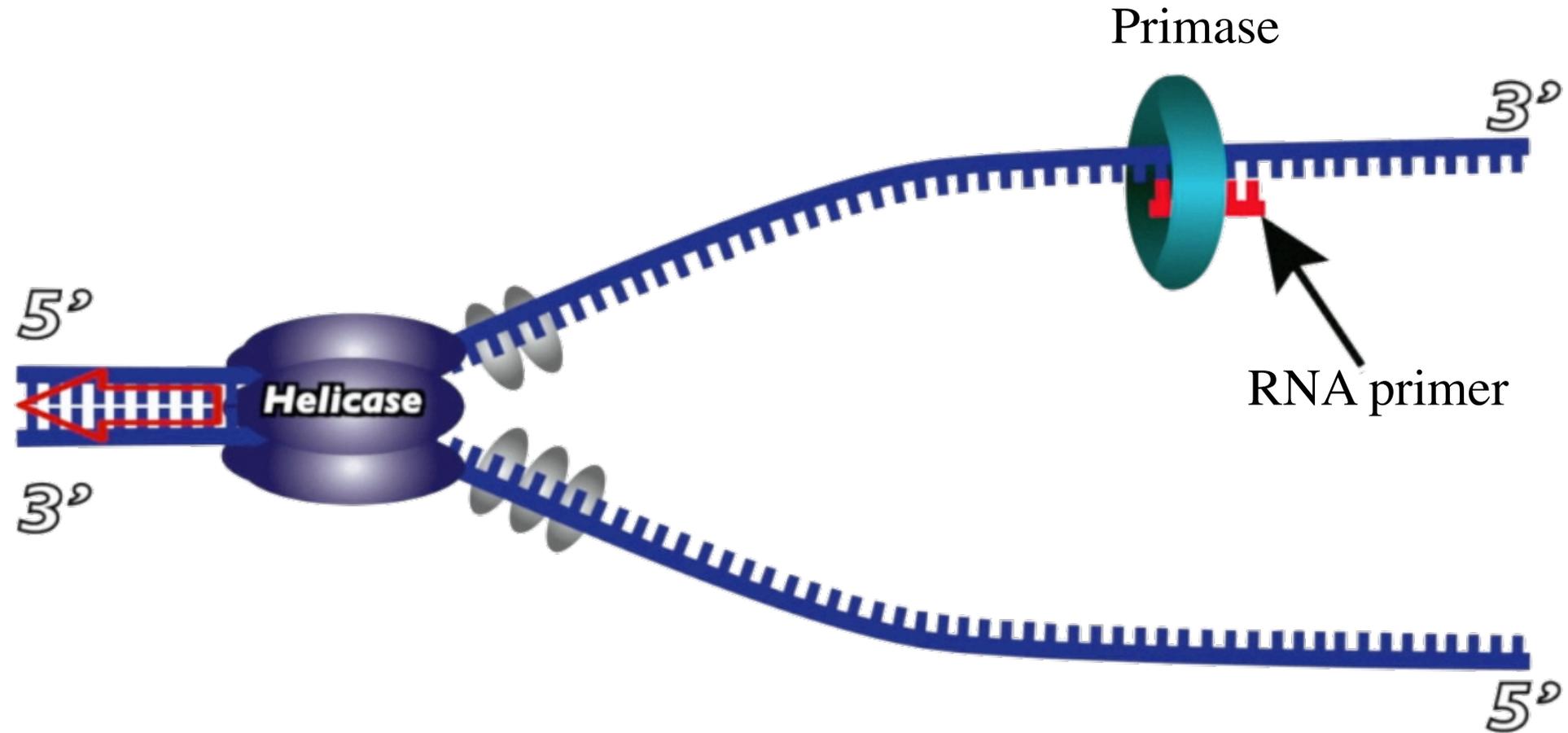
# DNA polymerase III.

- Waits for free nucleotides to H-bond with bases on the *template strand*.
- Creates sugar-phosphate bond between existing strand and new nucleotide at the 3' end.
- Energy comes from phosphate groups on nucleotides.

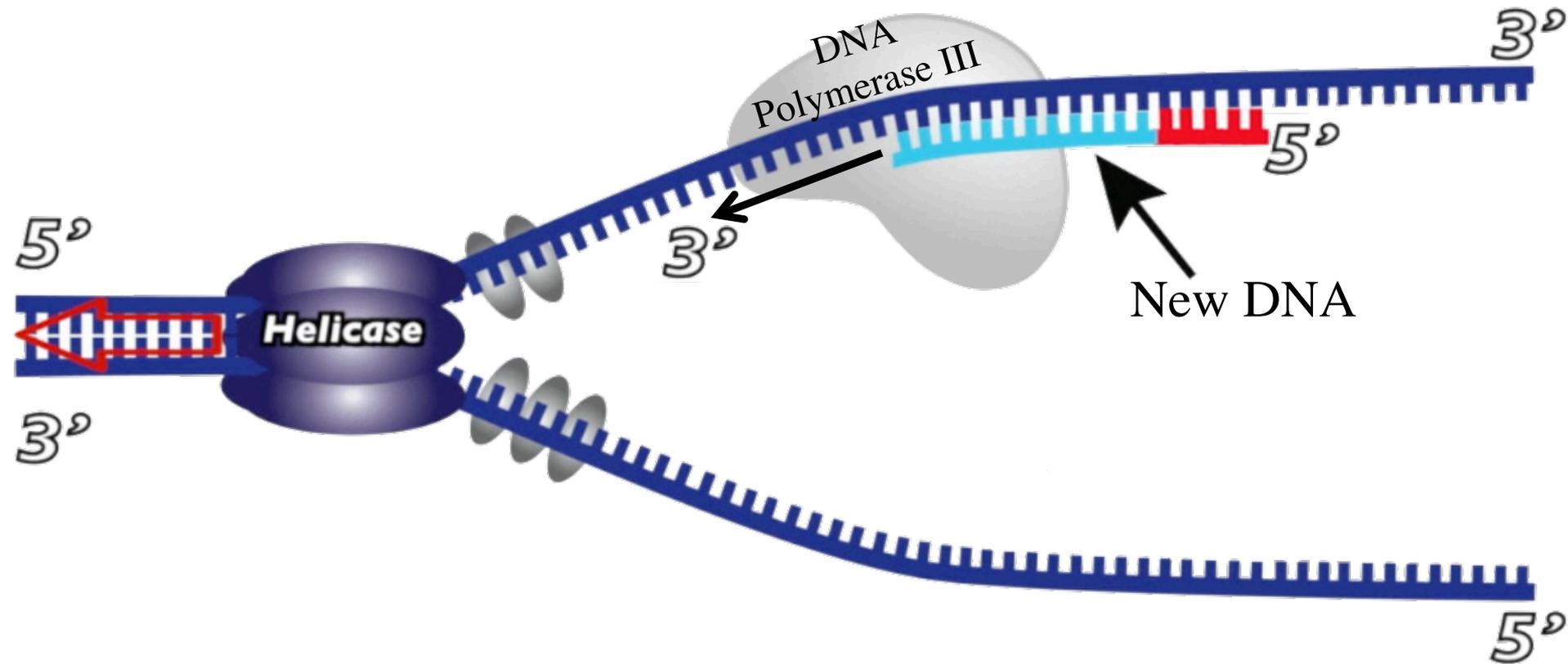


# Replication starts with *Priming*

- DNA polymerase III can only add to an existing strand.
- *Primase*
  - Starting from origin, lays down a short strand of complementary RNA
  - Works in 5' to 3' direction.

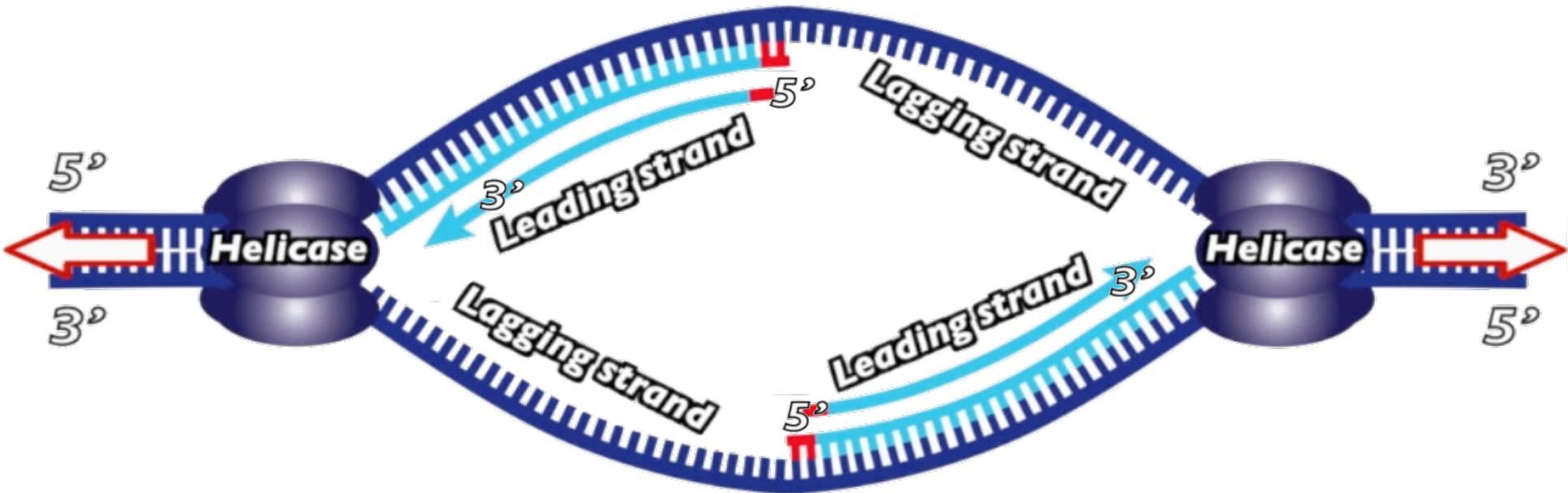


Then DNA polymerase III takes over, adding new nucleotides at 3' end

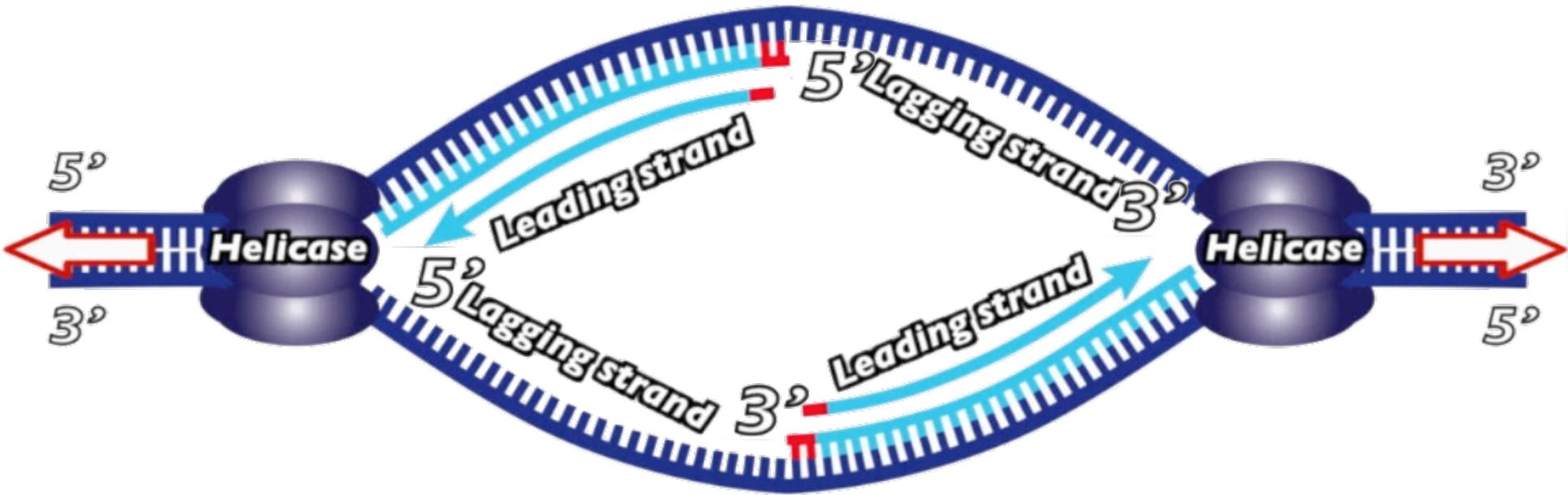


# Leading Strand: replication is continuous

- The strands where DNA polymerase III follows the opening replication fork is the *leading strand*
- Replication moves *continuously* in a 5' to 3' direction.

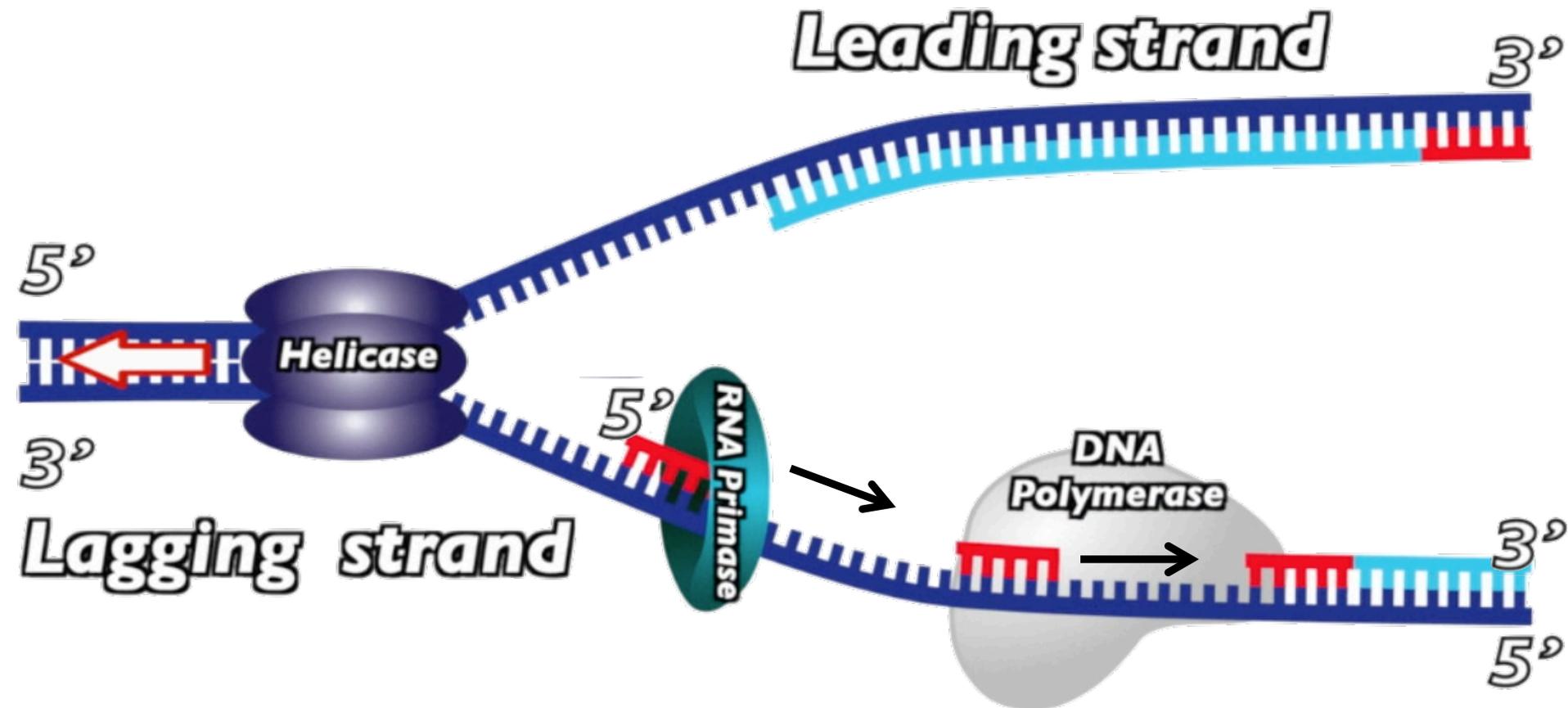


Lagging Strand: how can we synthesize 3' to 5'?

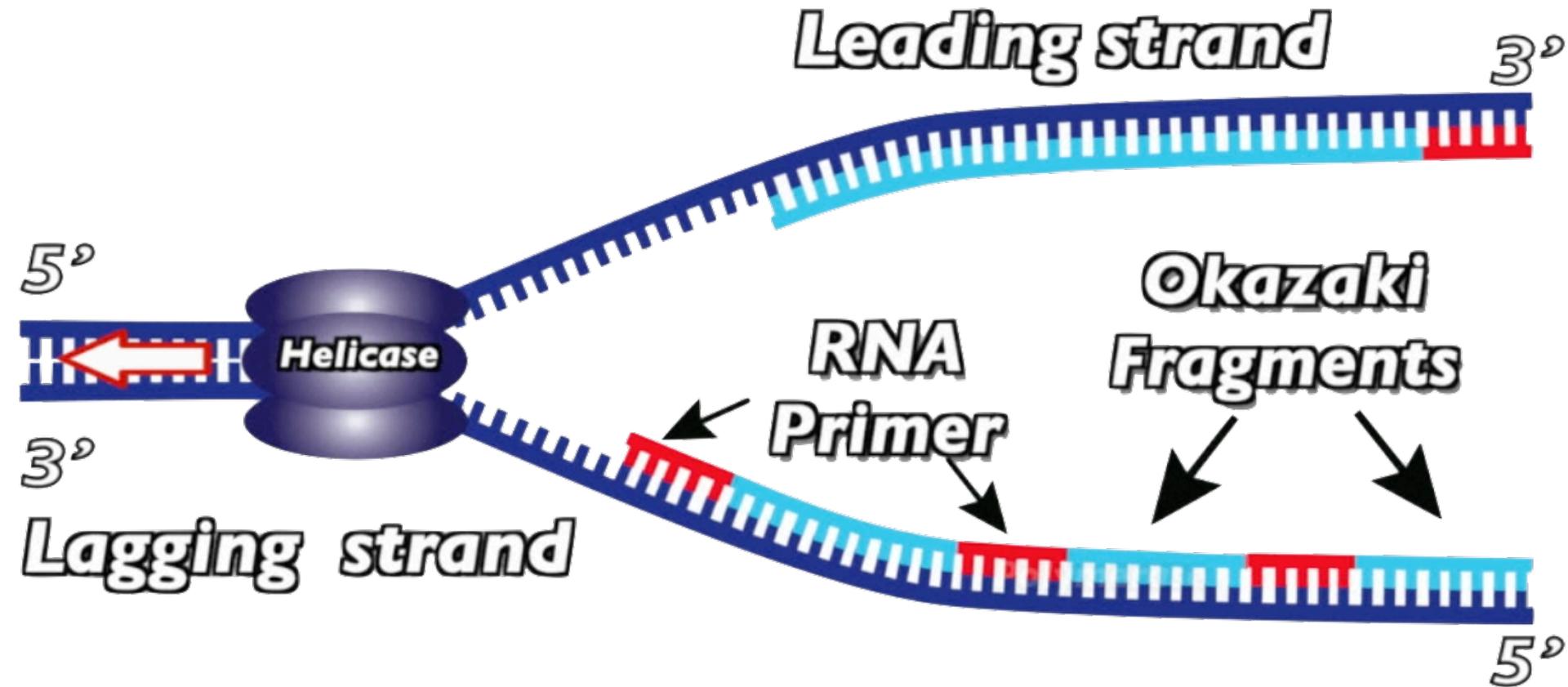


# Lagging Strand: synthesis is fragmentary

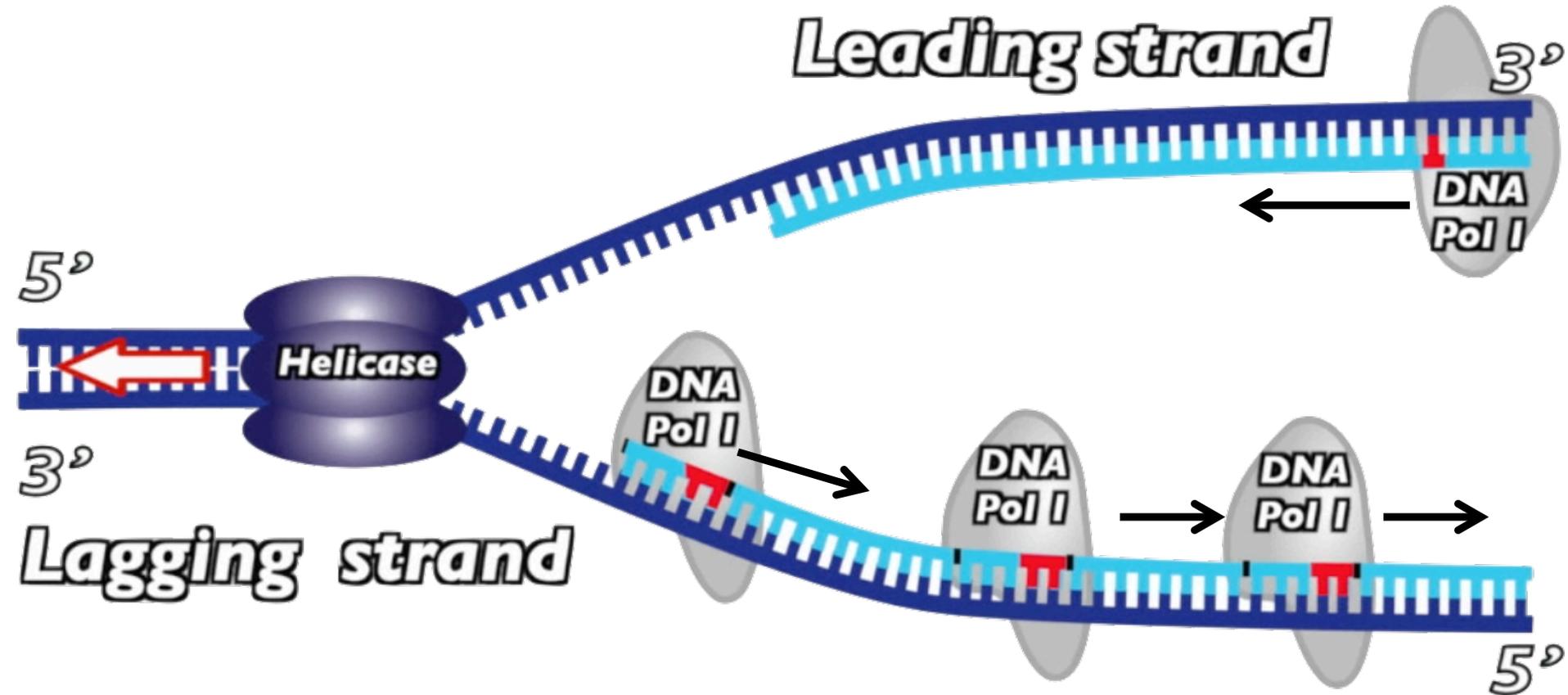
- In lagging strand, DNA polymerase III moves away from the opening replication fork.
- Replication is in short pieces called *Okazaki fragments*



# Okazaki Fragments

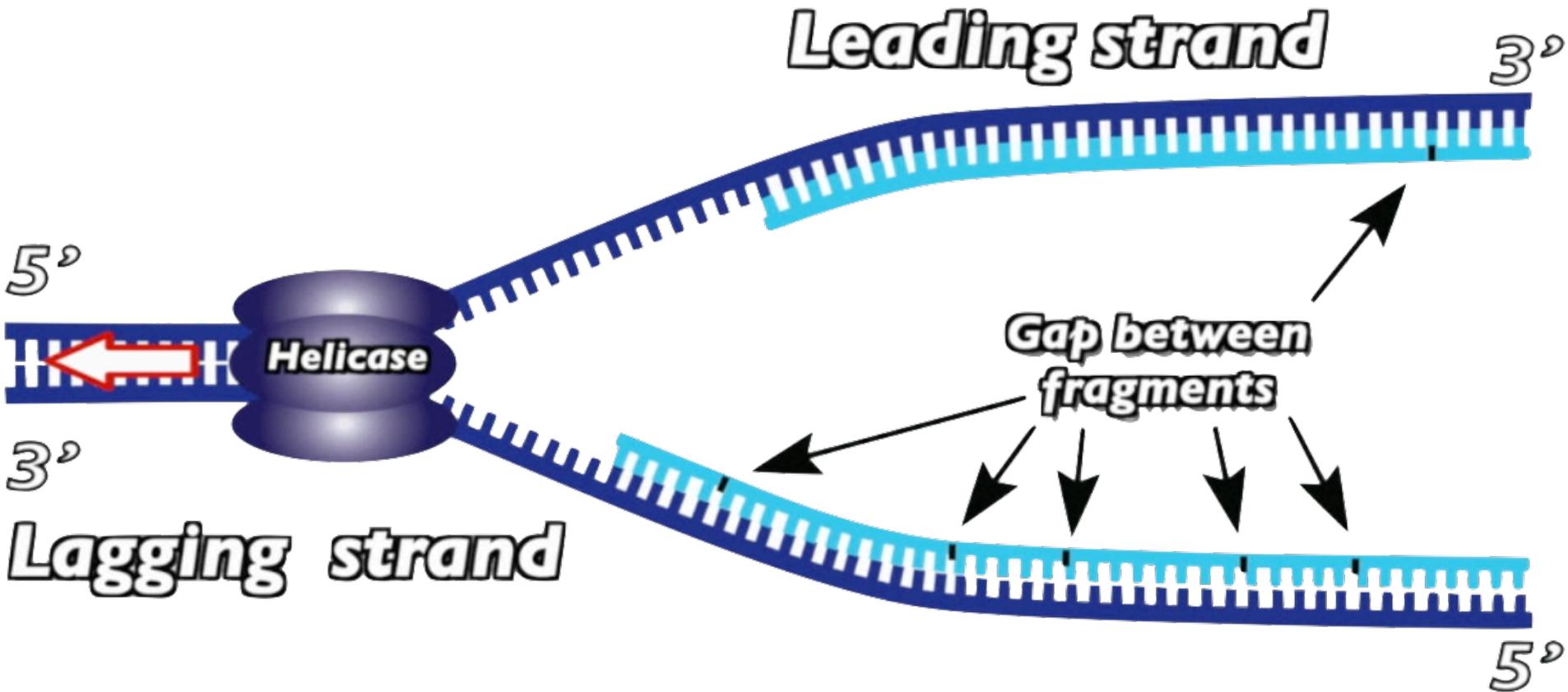


DNA polymerase I removes the primers...

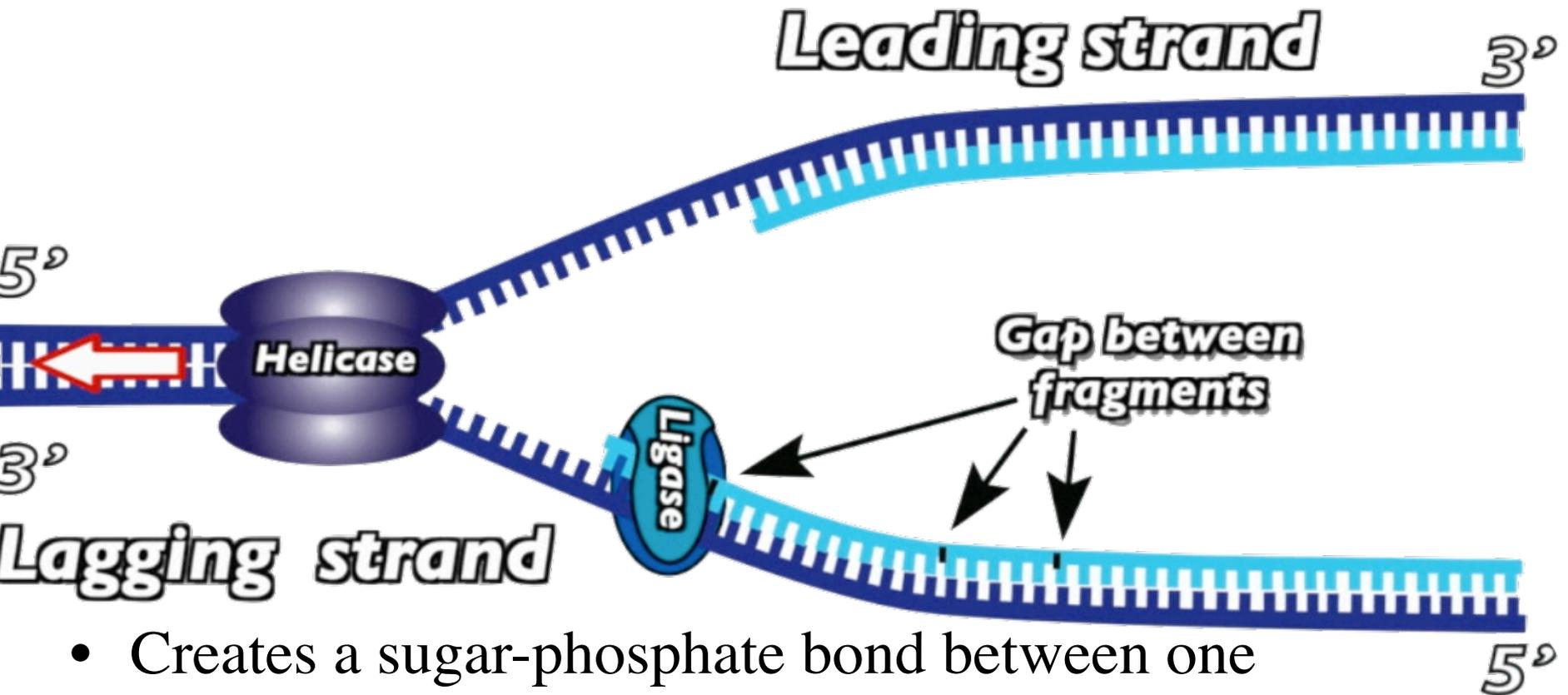


- And replaces the RNA with DNA.

Fragmentary synthesis results in gaps in the sugar-phosphate backbone

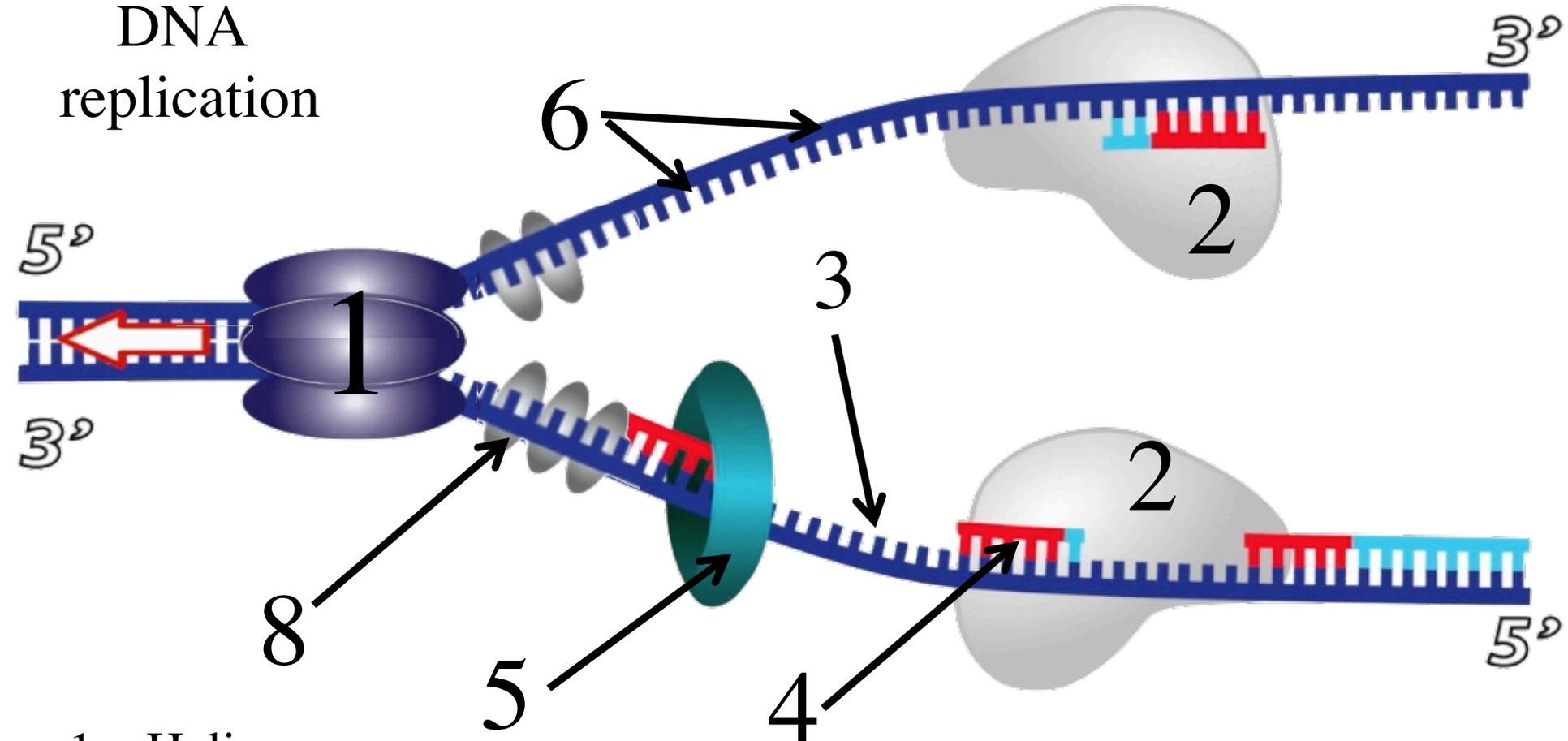


...which are repaired by DNA ligase



- Creates a sugar-phosphate bond between one fragment and the next.

# DNA replication



1. Helicase
2. DNA polymerase
3. Template (lagging strand)
4. RNA Primer
5. Primase
6. Template (leading strand)
7. Single strand binding proteins

Date: 12/1. Number: 5-4. **DNA replication**

**OBJECTIVE: Describe DNA replication**

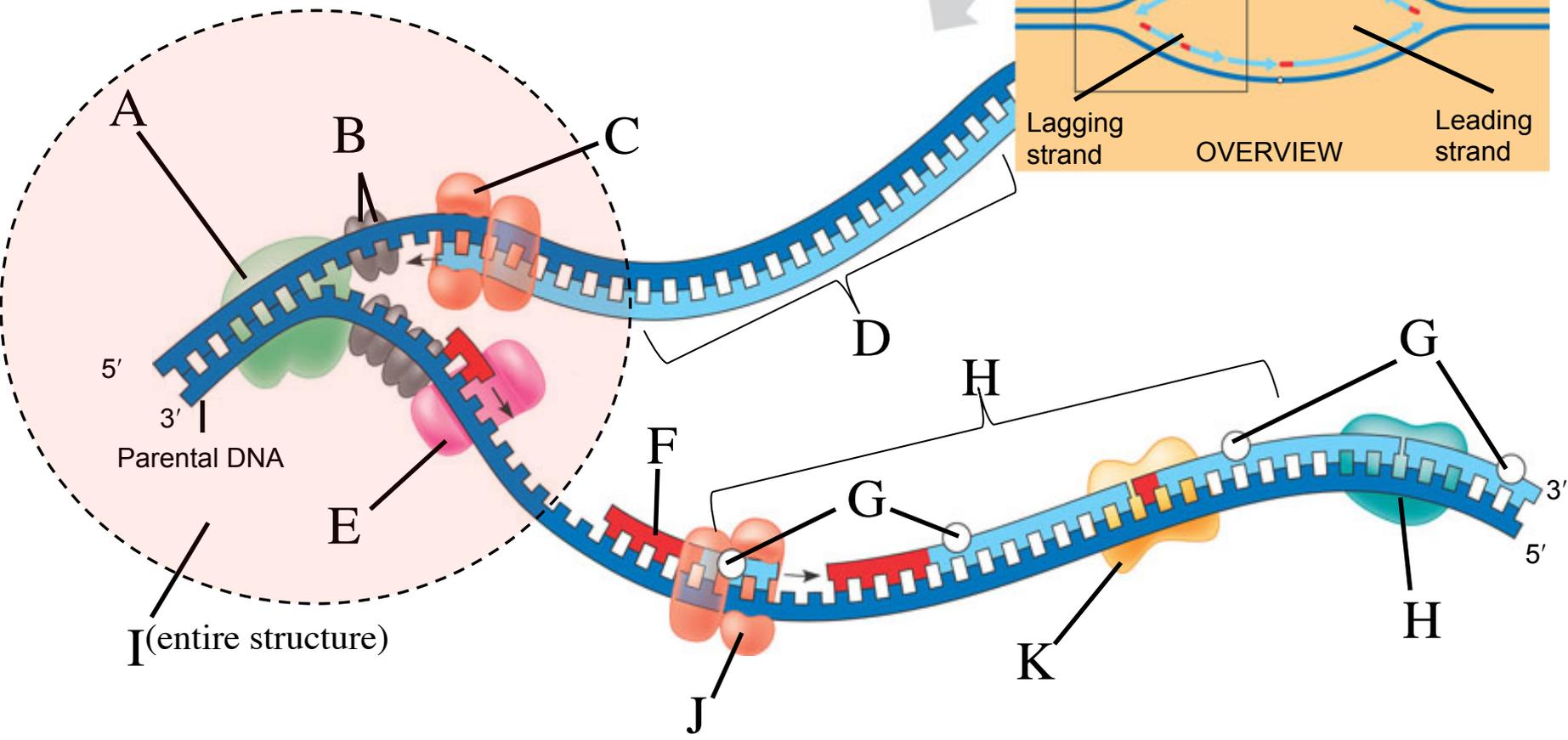
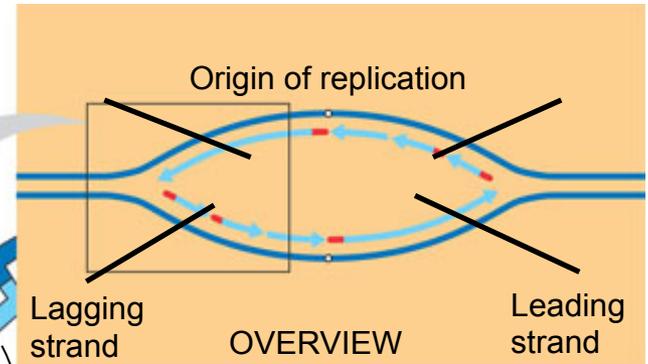
**HOMEWORK: FRQ: (see agenda) Imaginary interviews with Meselson/Stahl and Okazaki**

**CATALYST (copy and complete):**

<b>ENZYME</b>	<b>FUNCTION</b>
<b>Helicase:</b>	Separating the helix
<b>DNA Polymerase:</b>	Adding new nucleotides at 3' end
<b>Primase:</b>	Laying down an RNA Primer to start replication
<b>Ligase</b>	Connecting okazaki fragments

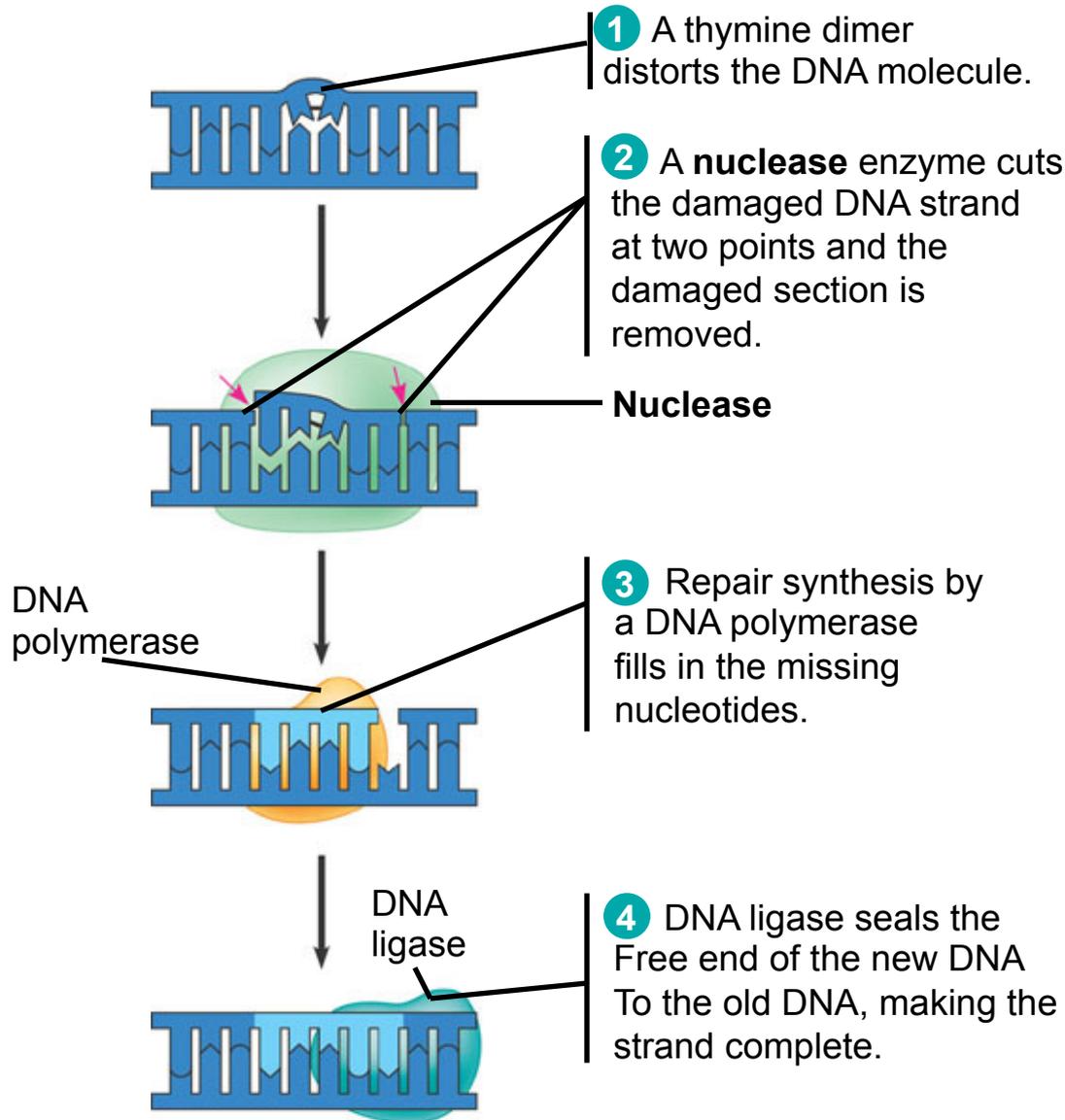
# Identify each part

← Overall direction of replication →



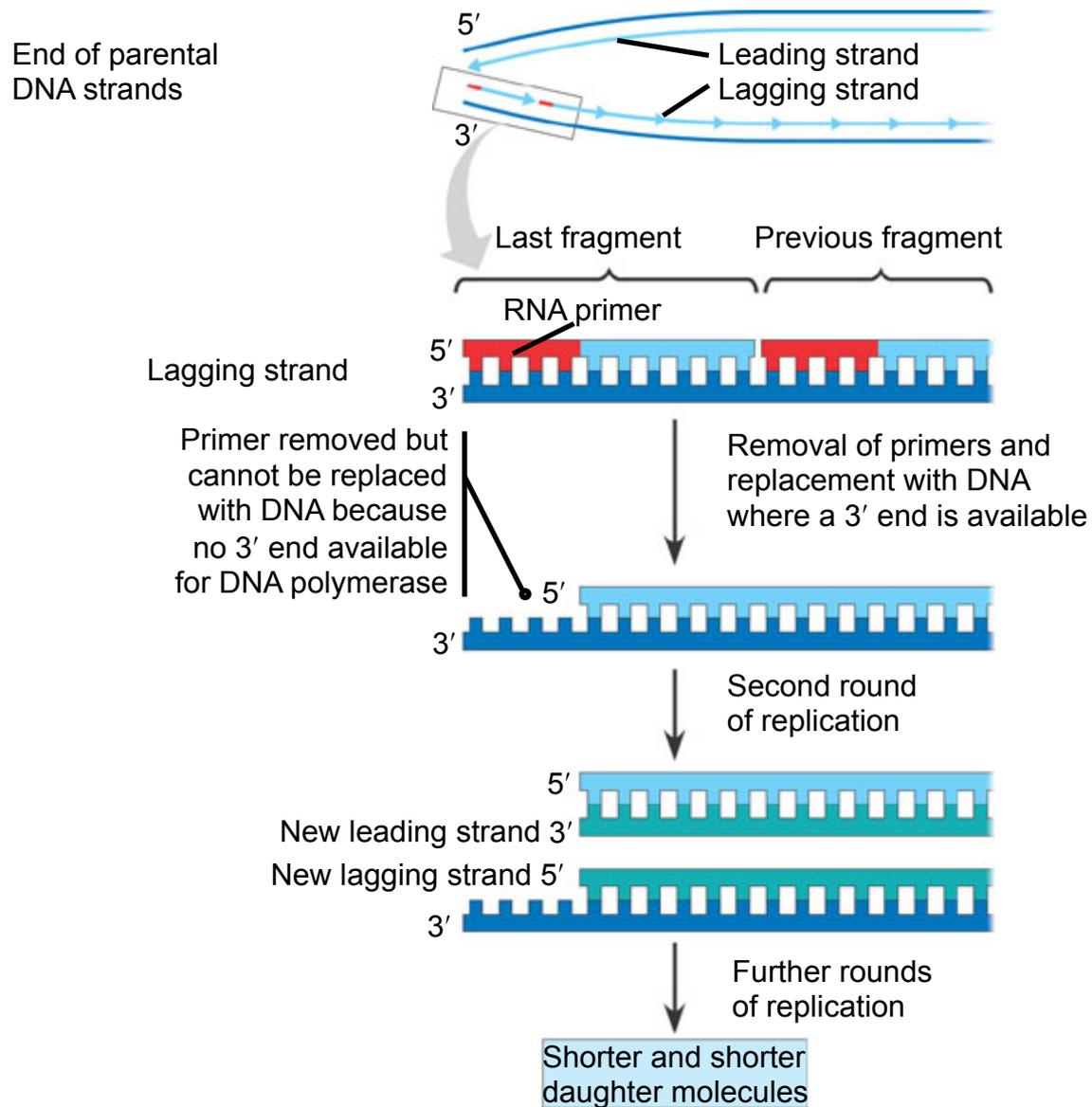
- |                   |                      |                   |
|-------------------|----------------------|-------------------|
| A. Helicase       | F. RNA primer        | K. DNA pol I      |
| B. SSBP           | G. Okazaki fragments | H (right). Ligase |
| C. DNA Pol III    | H. Lagging strand    |                   |
| D. Leading strand | I. Replication fork  |                   |
| E. Primase        | J. DNA poly III      |                   |

# Nucleotide excision repair of DNA damage

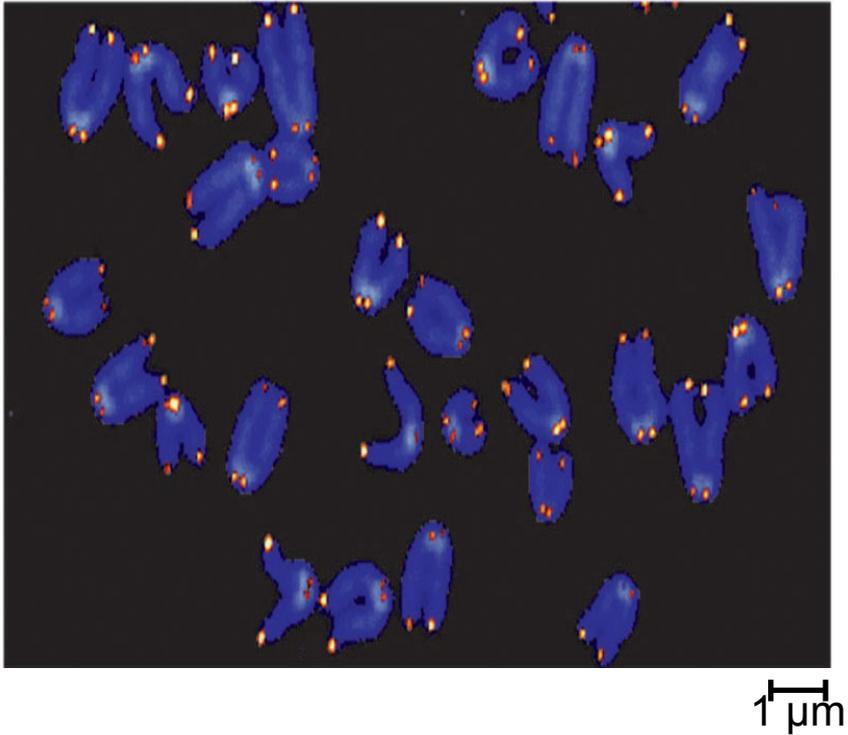


- System is inactivated in individuals with *xeroderma pigmentosum*.
- Sunlight's U.V. radiation leads to uncorrected mutations that go uncorrected.
- Result is skin cancer.

# The End Replication Problem in Linear DNA



# Telomeres



- Non-genetic multiple repeats of TTAGGG at the end of a chromosome.
- Telomerase lengthens telomeres. Contains RNA with AAUCCC, but
  - Is inactivated in body cells: only active in germ line cells that make sperm and eggs.
  - Is reactivated in cancer cells.